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A booklet prepared by the U.S. Office of Education and the Office of Economic Opportunity describes the types of educational programs which are eligible for federal funds. Following a brief discussion on some characteristics of the disadvantaged youngster, the document presents information about programs involving food, health care, and clothing. Most of the document is devoted to a wide range of educational programs which are presented under the headings of early, middle, and teen years. Briefly noted are teacher aide, teacher education, tutoring, and community school programs. The sources of government funding are described. (NH)

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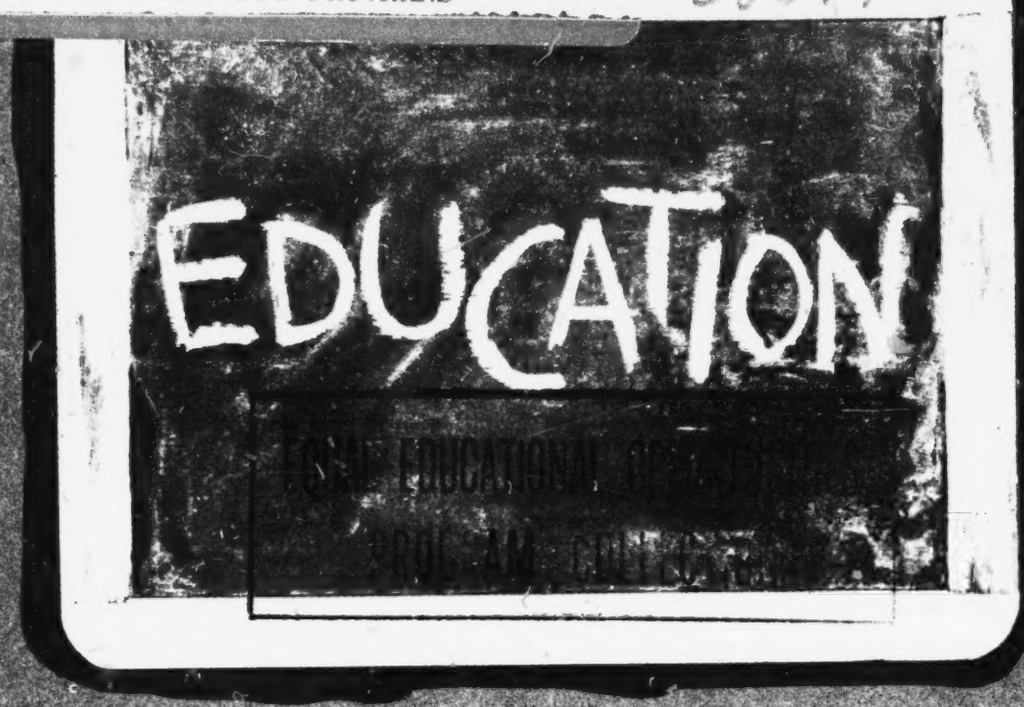

An Answer to Poverty

school programs which may be eligible for federal aid

UD 008 547

To: ***School Administrators, School Board Members and Others Concerned with Education***

From: SARGENT SHRIVER, *Director, Office of Economic Opportunity*
HAROLD HOWE, II, *U.S. Commissioner of Education*

With the passage of the Great Society education legislation, American communities have an unprecedented opportunity to improve the quantity and quality of education available to all segments of society. This booklet concentrates on educational programs that can help economically and culturally deprived youngsters.

Over $2 billion will be spent this year for educational programs designed specifically for the poor. Federal money is available from both the U.S. Office of Education and the Office of Economic Opportunity for a wide range of educational projects in impoverished areas and to persons of all ages.

The total monies available for improving educational opportunities for disadvantaged youngsters will be larger if imaginative use is made of both Office of Education and Office of Economic Opportunity funds.

All Americans want to see that these funds are spent in an efficient and prudent manner. At the same time, we want to ensure that Federal money appropriated by Congress for upgrading educational opportunities in the United States are used, and are expended in such a way as to have a maximum effect on the target group—students from low-income families.

This booklet describes the type of educational programs that can be supported with Federal funds, and offers suggestions, many based on actual case studies, of the myriad types of educational projects that may be initiated by local communities. The appendix contains information about (1) major laws under which funds are available; (2) details about eligibility and filing procedures; and (3) where to seek more information about Federal support for education.

The urgency of timing should be kept in mind—funds allocated this year under the Elementary and Secondary Act are available for use through August 30, 1966; and under the Economic Opportunity Act, funds have been set aside for each part of the country. If an area has not indicated interest or filed a request for funding by early 1966, funds will be reallocated to other needy areas.

We all have a lot to do—but the big job is yours. We hope this booklet of ideas will be helpful.

Education: An Answer to Poverty

Jointly published by the U.S. Office of Education and the Office of Economic Opportunity

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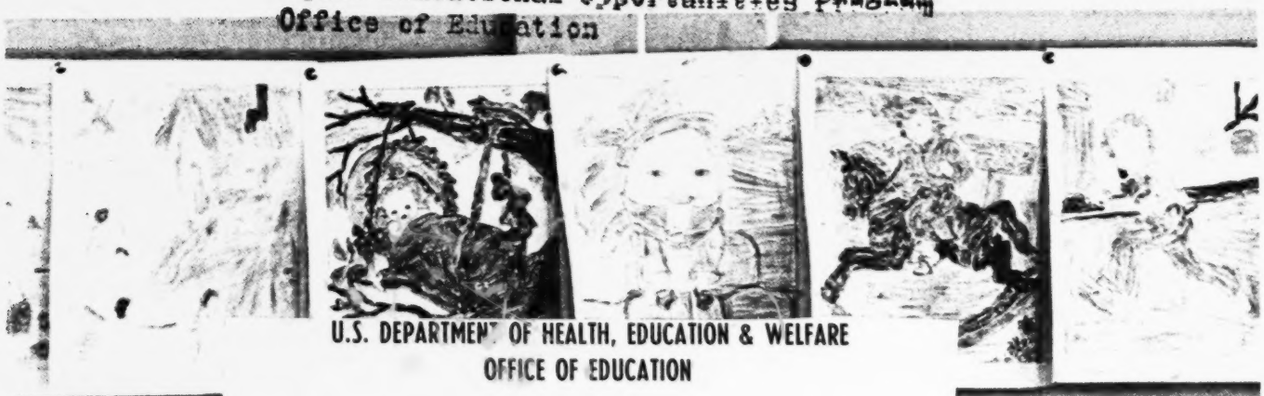

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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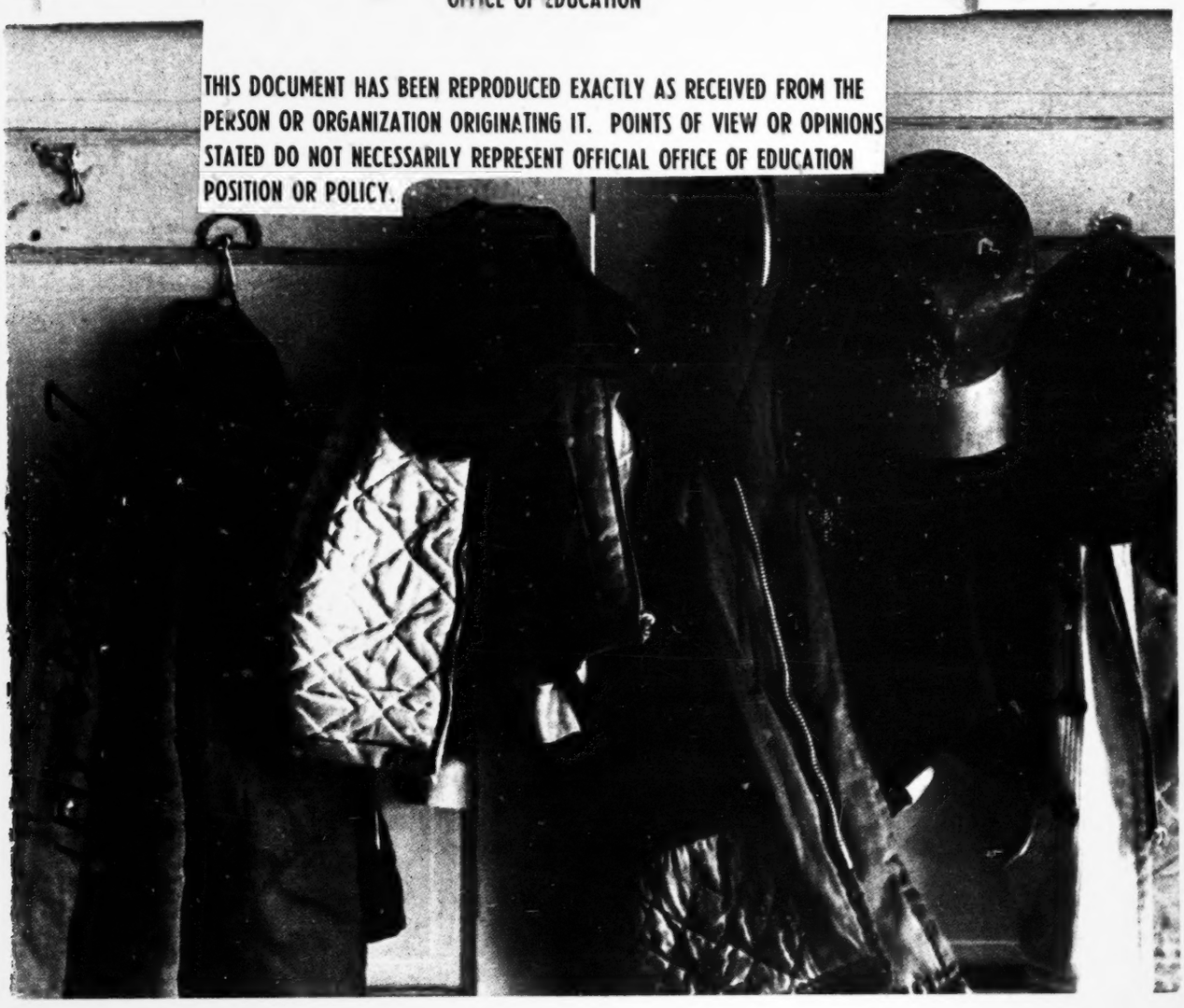


CONTENTS

FOREWORD 2

Can we understand them? 4

Food, Health Care, Clothing

Hungry Children Are Nonlearning Children 14

A School Full of Healthy Children 15

Mental Health 16

Clothing for School Children 17

The Physically Handicapped Child 18

The Early Years

Preschool Education and Project Head Start 20

The Early Years: Kindergarten to Third Grade 23

An Oral Language Skills Program, Grades One and Two 24

Auditory and Language Development, Primary Grades 25

An Enrichment Program Involving Parents 26

Duplicating the Techniques of a Creative Primary Teacher 28

One Teacher's Program in a Rural School 30

Organization of Classes for Individual Progress 31

A Summer Program for Migrant Children 33

The Middle Years

The Middle Years: Grades Four to Six 36

Summer and After-School Growth Programs 38

Summer Remedial Program: Grades Four to Six 39

A Summer Camp Reading Program 39

Developing Successful Field Trips 40

Learning About the City 41

Living Among Many Kinds of Americans 42

School Equipment to Support Good Ideas 43

Guidance for the Middle Years 45

The Teen Years

A Comprehensive Classroom and World-of-Work Program 48

Classroom and Guidance Preparation for Work 51

Courses Supported by the Vocational Education Act of 1963 52

Special College Orientation Programs 53

Students in Community Service 54

Preparing Rural Youngsters for Mobility 56

A School Environment for Pregnant Girls 57

NONCERTIFIED AIDES IN THE CLASSROOM 59

CONTINUING EDUCATION OF TEACHERS 61

AFTER-SCHOOL STUDY CENTERS AND TUTORING 65

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL 68

SOME FINAL CONSIDERATIONS 70

APPENDIX: Sources of Government Funding 72

FOREWORD

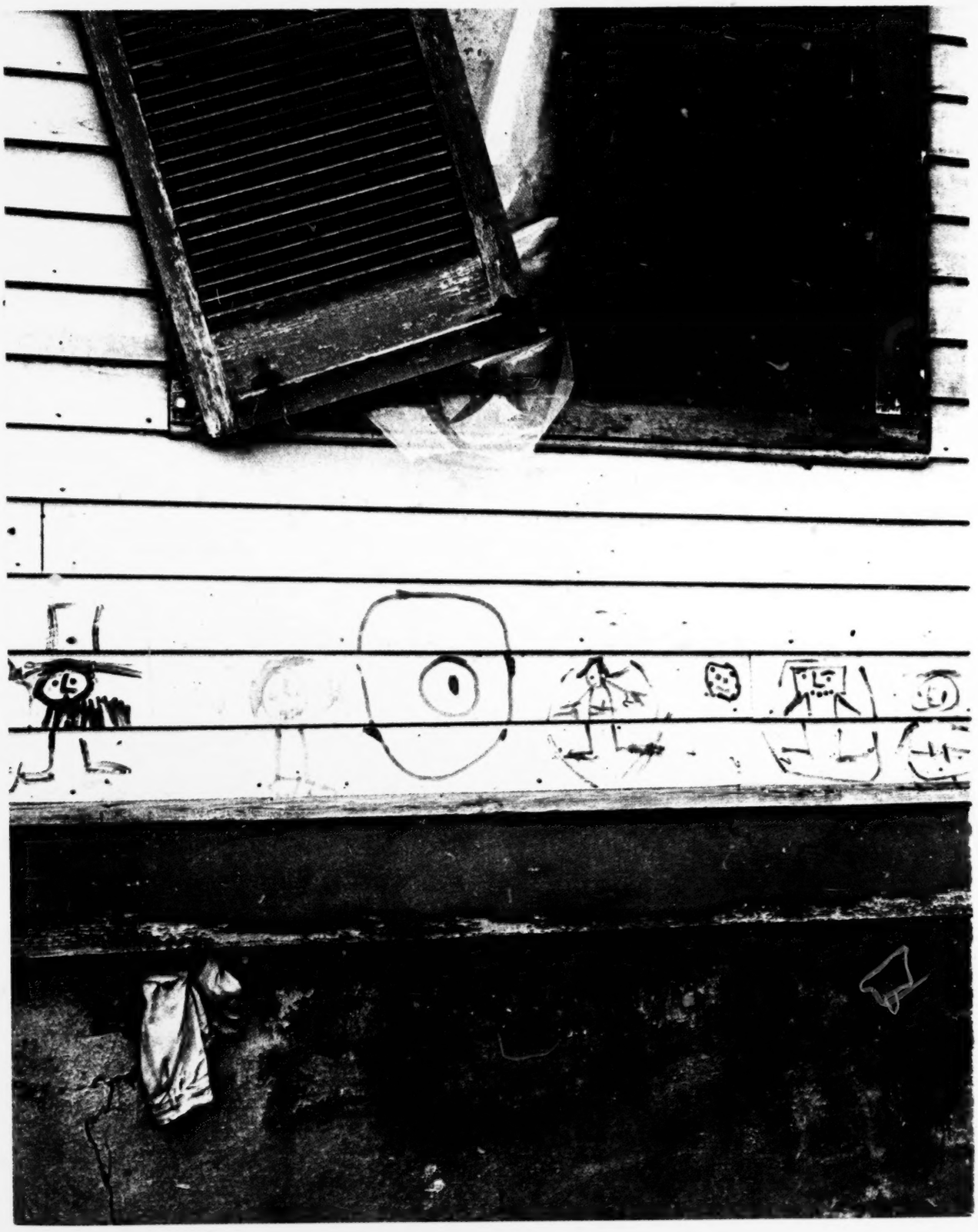
Unless otherwise noted, programs in this booklet may receive support by either the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, or Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965. Both Acts support programs for children from low-income families. Under the Economic Opportunity Act, the support is up to 90 percent of approved costs for special remedial and other educational assistance. Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act supports all approved costs. This is a Federal-state cooperative effort, and the administration of funds is left to the states.

Congress has expressed concern that funds available under these two Acts be used in reinforcing, nonduplicating ways which result in maximum help for disadvantaged children. Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act stipulates that cooperation with community action organizations should be an important part of development plans. In addition, the guidebook for Community Action Programs, issued by the Office of Economic Opportunity, states that the eligibility of applicants is judged in part by the active involvement of the educational system in community plans. We have made extensive efforts to incorporate the concern of Congress in our planning and hope that this concern will be reflected in state and local plans.

The total monies available for improving educational opportunities for disadvantaged youngsters will be larger if imaginative use is made of both Office of Education and Office of Economic Opportunity funds.

We hope that after you read this booklet you will meet with representatives of civic groups, school administrators and others about the types of programs (including some not included here) which might be of help to disadvantaged children in your schools and communities.

Can we understand them?



Why is America suddenly so concerned—to the extent of more than two billion dollars—about improving the education of children of the poor? This money cannot fatten a father's paycheck. It will not put bread on tonight's table.

We have learned that poverty and ignorance go hand in hand. We have also learned that the modern variety of "hard core" poverty has something in common with the elegance and security of established wealth. It is inherited. America is newly committed not only to relieving the dependence of millions of families on public welfare and unemployment compensation, but to breaking the chain of dependence that passes down from old generations to new.

Educators know that in school districts with large enrollments of the poor, there is a high incidence of school dropouts. They know, too, that among children too young to drop out of school, the early signs of probable failure are painfully visible to their teachers. The teacher early recognizes that a child of poverty is a child of a world separate from the prosperous, aspiring mainstream of American life. Teachers in first to third grades feel the child slipping away. By the fourth grade, when abstract concepts based on the building blocks of reading and arithmetic become important in the curriculum, the child falls further behind.

By the eighth grade, he may be as many as three grades back, his mind closed, his behavior rebellious. By high school age, he is already headed for unemployment and dependence, sometimes disdaining the "outside" world of success that already disdains him. Worst of all, he has secretly become contemptuous of himself, conditioned to failure. A potentially successful human being has become a waste, both to himself and his country.

To fully understand what educators have recently been learning about the genesis of the school dropout, let's take a look at this child even before he enters school—say, at the age of three or four. As everyone knows, thousands of local school systems, aided by Federal funds, conducted classes for prekindergarten children during the summer of 1965. This program, known as Project Head Start, helped many of these young children to become measurably better prepared to enter first grade.

Why is a child not ready for first grade in the first place?

Just because a child of an impoverished home hasn't learned "school kinds of things," that doesn't mean he hasn't learned. Like any child, he learns from the things he sees and does. The trouble is, he has not seen or done many of the things children of more prosperous families take for granted. In a Project Head Start class in a small mid-western industrial town, a teacher recently prepared to read a story about farm animals to half a dozen children. To preface her reading of the story, the teacher asked:

"Do all of you like milk?"

The children nodded affirmatively.

Then she asked, "Where does milk come from?"

After a silence, a pudgy boy replied, "store."

"A bottle," another boy volunteered.

Holding the book up for all to see, the teacher pointed to a picture of a cow and explained that this was the creature from which milk comes.

Indicating the cow's head, she asked, "What's that?"

A girl happily sail, "Hih head."

"Yes, his head," said the teacher (avoiding the confusing topic of gender). "And what's this?" she asked, her finger ponting to one of the horns.

"Hih head," the girl repeated. The others stayed silent.

When they do answer a question, some children often use only a single, simple word, not a sentence, seldom even a phrase. The word usually describes a large, general category. The children are not trained to name fine distinctions among things. More than half of them have never seen a book or magazine in their homes; many of their parents, though native born, can't read. Although preschool classes are as disorderly as any gathering of tiny children, the commotion is oddly wordless. The children say little to each other and almost nothing to the teacher. Their lives at home are lived with extremely little talk, especially between adults and children.

After the story the Michigan teacher said eagerly, "Now let's pretend we're going to make some vegetable soup." On a table she laid out wax models of things to eat.

"What are these?" she asked.

"Vechebas," a girl said.

"Vegetables," said the teacher. "What kind is this?" Silence. "It's a to—. Your remember, it's a to—."

"Tomatah," said a boy, glowing with achievement.

"Tomato," said the teacher, matching his joy. "What's this?"

"Cair," said a girl.

"A carrot," said the teacher, then reaching for an ear of corn. "And what color is this?"

"Banana," said the same girl.

"This is corn," corrected the teacher. "But what color is corn? The color."

A boy said, "Red." That seemed good. Three others repeated, "Red."

"This is red," said the teacher, holding up the tomato. "But what color is corn?" Finally, she had to say "Yellow," and the children repeated "Yellow."

The inability to identify colors is only one example of the slow development of their verbal ability. It is a standard American complaint that four-year-olds are forever asking, "Why this? Why that? Daddy, Mummy, tell me why." Not these children. They do not wonder why. Curiosity, the marvel of observing cause and effect, the joy of finding out—which power the development of knowledge—have laid no deep mark on their lives. How is a child to learn to wonder if those about him have not demonstrated wonder by asking questions and giving answers?

Children suffering from such poverty of ordinary experience are everywhere. But they are found in appalling concentration in neighborhoods of poor, uneducated parents. They may be children of laborers or of isolated farmers in the dirt-road backwoods. Often, children of such rural background live in the big cities to which parents were driven when their land would no longer support them. They may be chil-

dren of undereducated Puerto Ricans, Mexicans, migratory farm laborers, or refugees from the poverty of American Indian reservations. In large number, too, they are the children of Negroes who are part of a great migratory wave, chiefly from newly mechanized cotton and tobacco plantations, seeking new opportunity and hope in big cities, where they often do not find it.

When such children enter school, whether in the country or city, their teachers, who often have different backgrounds, are astonished to discover the children's poverty of—or differences in—experience. Besides their frequent inability to tell one color from another, the children may be unaware of shapes—blocks, circles, squares—or of the idea of short and long. The teacher was trained in college to assume a knowledge of these things. One primary-grade city teacher was baffled to learn, upon reading with her class about Frosty, that some of her pupils assumed a snowman is a man who shovels snow from city streets; they had seen one of those, but knew of no other kind. She later found that one of her children was sure a fire engine's purpose was to bring fire. No one had ever told him otherwise.

As these children somehow manage to progress through school, their teachers in the fifth and sixth grades discover that inadequacy of early preparation has increasingly deeper implications.

"Those are the grades," says a well-known developmental psychologist, "when learning depends more and more on abstractions: What is a nation? What happened in the past? Suddenly it's discovered that these children are unprepared for skilled use of such basic abstract ideas as bigger and smaller, higher and lower, round and square. They are untrained in ideas that grow from numbers. A child may know that Yankee Stadium holds a large number of people but doesn't know if that large number is closer to 100 or 100,000.

"He is comparatively unprepared to deal skillfully with the idea of time—the past, the future, planning, scheduling. The middle-class American notion of the value of time or the careful allotment of it appears to be comparatively absent in the culture of the poor, just as it is almost entirely absent in the life of certain Indian tribes. This is extremely difficult for most time-oriented Americans to grasp. Often a teacher interprets a child's disregard for time as a form of re-

bellion or stupidity, instead of a problem in cultural difference."

By the time the child is old enough to drop out of school, he already may be well insulated from other standard American values.

"It's hard for outsiders to understand," says a school counselor in a Midwestern city crowded with recent settlers from rural areas, "that for many of these children 'work' is only a word. They have never seen anyone in the city work. If there's a man at home, there's a good chance he's unemployed. But in a large percentage of these homes there is no man at the head of the house at all."

The school counselor organizes visits to offices and factories to demonstrate what people do when they work—how a knowledge of words and numbers helps them live better. She organizes trips to the city's downtown district for teenagers and parents who have never been there even though it is only a mile or two from the heart of the impoverished neighborhood. Many of the poor in that city are Negroes. They never have had occasion to go downtown because they don't ordinarily get jobs in downtown offices, and many do not feel welcome in the stores.

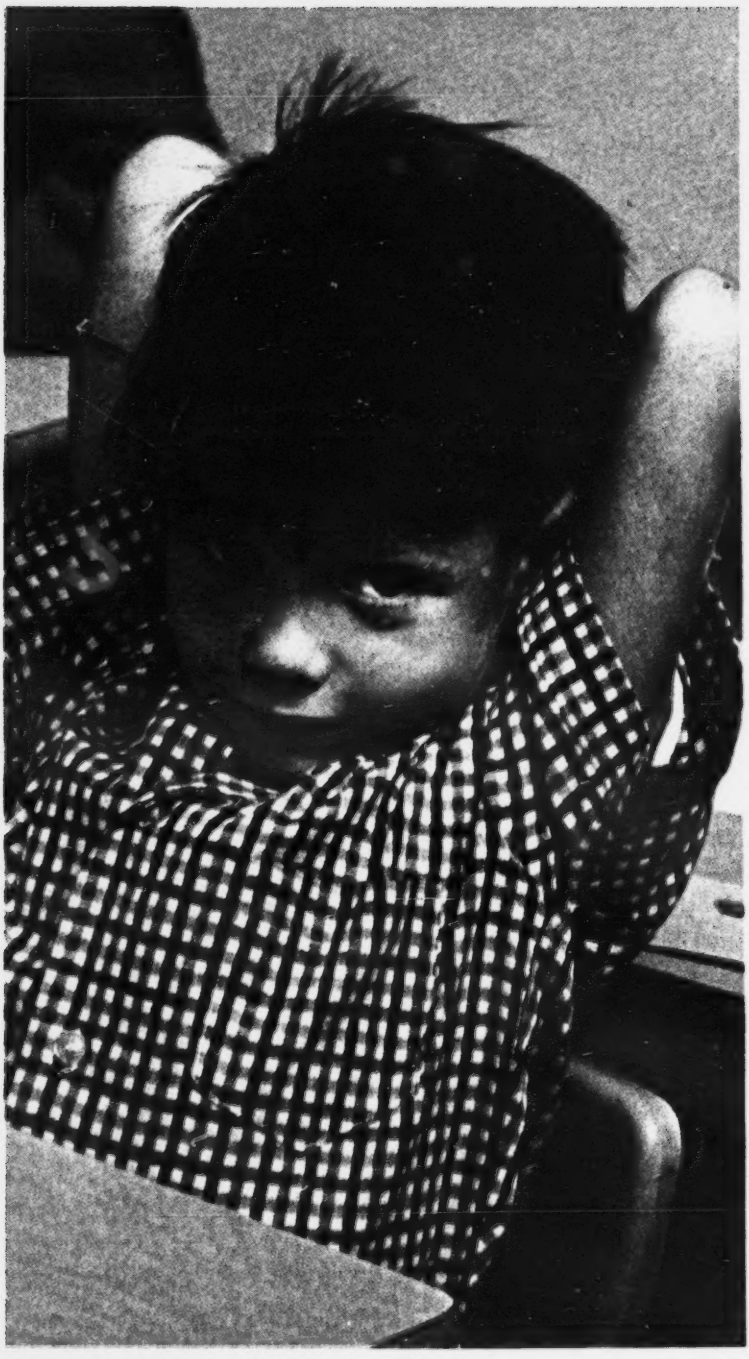
After these visits the counselor leads dropouts in discussing what wages are, what one must do to get them, how one's life is improved when one has money of his own. These elementary ideas are often startlingly new to young people of dependent families. The counselor has found that while many may understand the idea of "a job"—something hard to get—few have any real notion that jobs separate into many specialized occupations. They do not know that a house is built from the separate efforts of carpenters, bricklayers, painters, truck drivers, architects, and mortgage bankers. No one they know has such a specialized occupation. A low-status, unskilled worker speaks simply of "going to work."

These youngsters, often either migrants from rural areas or children of parents who were, are constantly growing in number as the tide of city-bound farm families rises. In 1935 there were 6.8 million farms in America. Now there are fewer than 3.7 million. Experts guess that by 1980 there may be fewer than a million. One American on a farm used to feed three others in town. Today, one farmer feeds 27 and soon will feed 50.

A rural school that is largely dependent upon the low taxes of submarginal farms gets caught in a downward cycle, perpetually worsening its plight. A school board member from such a down-spiraling town in the Ozarks, himself a father of two children, explains the seemingly insoluble problem: "With the young parents and teenagers around here gone, looking for work in the cities, fewer kids get born, so state aid to schools keeps going down. We're too small to keep teachers for specialized subjects. A couple of years ago our school had to drop music and industrial arts. Before that, we lost our science teacher. The state law requires the teaching of science, so our kids had to take it by correspondence course."

The local school official's hardships are severe in dealing with children from educationally deprived backgrounds. No matter how dedicated, industrious, and compassionate, he knows that his school cannot do the job alone. It cannot totally undo the overwhelmingly negative, mind-closing oppressiveness of the out-of-school world of the impoverished child. As long as a school has boundaries between the ages of 6 and 18, and between the hours of 9 a.m. and 3 p.m., the quality of a child's home and immediate community environment will continue to be the chief molding force in his life. Yet, America is full of examples of aspiring individuals who overcame oppressive early backgrounds and grew to be of great worth to themselves, their communities, and their country. Somewhere in their early lives something or someone gave them the spur, the stimulation, and the vista that equipped them to overcome the barriers. The purpose of this publication is to suggest ways in which America's local school officials may vastly spread the opportunity for such individuals to help themselves while there is still time.

The pages that follow are a collection of examples of possible projects that local school districts may choose to undertake with the aid of Federal funds. The cost of many of these projects is based on introducing new classroom techniques or curriculum organization more than on acquisition of new equipment and teaching materials. If they are to be instituted effectively, they will require careful orientation and training of teachers through seminars, afternoon and summer discussion time, and sometimes special courses; they will require curriculum planning by selected staff and perhaps travel to inspect comparable projects. In some



cases they are based on augmenting a teaching staff with specialized personnel and professionals not now employed by some schools, such as elementary-school teaching specialists in art, music, remedial reading, and physical education, as well as guidance counselors, social workers, librarians, and noncertified teacher aides. Extra pay for teachers undertaking special planning and training as well as salaries for needed

new staff may be appropriate uses of some types of newly available Federal funds.

Most of the cases cited here are in successful operation in local school districts; some are composites of successful programs, designed to illustrate how useful, tested experiences may be combined for further enrichment.

As an aid to the dissemination of information about experimental programs and related research activities, the U.S. Office of Education has established the Educational Research Information Center (ERIC). ERIC makes available a brief description of an interesting, existing, innovative educational program and a list of documents which give details about the program.

The complete set of documents in microfiche film form is available through each state department of education and through the 100 largest school districts in the nation. Five hundred smaller districts have also received the "program indexes" and abstracts. Through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, any user may obtain at small cost the full text of any document in the system in microfiche form or on paper.

Several of the leading microfilm companies are marketing small microfiche readers for slightly more than $100. Reader-printers, capable of printing from microfiche into paper copies, are available for approximately $1,000. School districts may find it desirable to purchase such machines and to use the ERIC system for ready reference to the available literature on the education of the disadvantaged. In addition to providing descriptive materials about innovative programs, the ERIC system will elaborate on related research and provide evaluative program data as well.

Food, Health Care, Clothing

Hungry Children Are Nonlearning Children

Scientific studies have shown conclusively that the process of learning virtually ends when a human being becomes uncomfortably hungry. When a child appears at school in the morning having had little or no breakfast, he might just as well have stayed at home. The teacher's effort is wasted. The curriculum, the long hours of professional preparation, the value of textbooks and teaching aids are lost upon him. Similarly, a child without lunch loses most of the value of a school afternoon. A hungry child not only injures himself, but his discomfort may subtly disturb the teaching of a whole class.

The U.S. Department of Agriculture helps support a National School Lunch Program in which most schools participate. Some schools fail to take part, however, chiefly for three reasons: (a) They lack the staff to administer a lunch program. (b) They lack physical facilities for preparing hot lunches or even for serving cold ones. (c) Schools with a high density of poverty-stricken children have so many hungry youngsters who cannot afford to pay the token price of a subsidized lunch that a school's educational fund would be seriously reduced by trying to provide free meals.

Newly available Federal funds may be used to overcome these deficiencies so that any school may guarantee that each child has a good lunch, whether he can afford it or not. Schools may also establish programs, aided by Federal funds, to provide breakfasts for impoverished children who frequently come to school without a good morning meal.

Information on surplus commodities may be obtained from the state director of commodity distribution. If needs are not satisfied from these sources, funds for school breakfasts and lunches may be made available by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity or under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

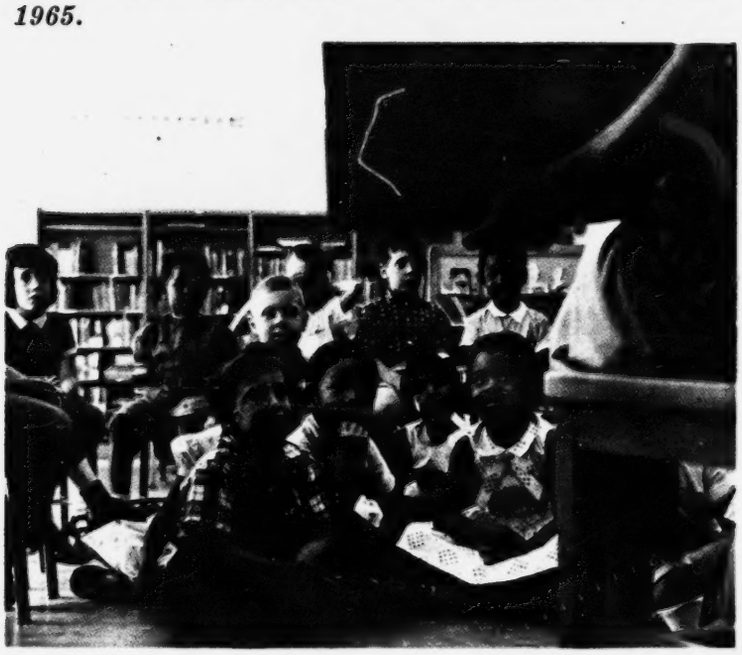
A School Full of Healthy Children

A sick child is no more effective as a learner than a hungry child. To guard against illness or handicaps that may impede his learning, every child should be entitled to a full physical examination and corrective treatment by qualified professionals, whether his family can afford it or not. However, it is important that all such programs be jointly designed by doctors and public health officials, and school officials.

A school may pay for a nurse, part-time or full-time as needed, to give service to children of the poor. A nurse can be of immeasurable value in spotting illnesses and handicaps and may refer these children to medical doctors, dentists, eye doctors, and other appropriate professionals. Fees for these professionals, as well as the cost of transportation to and from their offices, may also be a proper use of Federal funds.

For some schools the most efficient and effective way of discovering defects may be to have a doctor or other professional visit a school building for one or more days at regular intervals to conduct examinations for illnesses and defects in vision, hearing, or speech. Once these education-inhibiting conditions are diagnosed, a school may have to take special steps to guarantee that children have follow-up treatment, including eyeglasses or hearing aids.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.



Mental Health

A psychologically disturbed child is a handicapped learner. Serious disturbance may not only obliterate his ability as a pupil but can be a serious hindrance to his teacher and his classmates. Helping him is as much the business of a school as helping a child with a physical disease.

Children in small, perhaps geographically remote schools with a high enrollment of the poor ought to be as entitled to a guidance counselor as children in an affluent suburb or large city where counseling programs have become standard. Perhaps schools not large enough to require a full-time counselor or unable to find a qualified one may arrange to share one with nearby schools or even with other school districts. Or they may wish to retain the part-time service of a psychologist employed in a nearby hospital or mental health clinic.

Larger school systems may find it best to form a department which will serve the mental health needs of large enrollments. One Pennsylvania city has organized a mental health team to serve its disadvantaged neighborhoods. The team is comprised of a child psychiatrist, a clinical psychologist, two psychiatric social workers, two home-school visitors, a research consultant, and secretarial help. A major responsibility of this team is prevention of mental disorder, as well as treatment of the obviously disturbed. It also does research studies to develop and test new patterns of mental health services for identifying and serving the psychological needs of children in distress.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Clothing for School Children

With tragic frequency, teachers and attendance officers who investigate the causes of an impoverished child's absence from school, or even worse, of a child's permanently dropping out, are appalled to discover that the child lacks clothes to wear and is ashamed to appear among his classmates improperly dressed. In a large Eastern city a teacher was puzzled recently when a girl in her class was absent from school every second day. Upon checking with the teacher of the girl's slightly younger brother, she learned that the brother had the same strange habit, but that the boy always came to school when the girl was absent. The teachers investigated and found that the two children owned only one pair of shoes between them.

Programs may be established for cooperation with local welfare departments or private social agencies to ensure that children have sufficient clothing for school. Schools undertaking such programs would do well to heed certain sad experiences of others in distributing clothing, as well as school lunches, to children of the poor. If distribution is made in any way that identifies the youngster as a recipient to his classmates, the embarrassment to him may indeed hasten his permanent departure from school life.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

The Physically Handicapped Child

Educational deprivation may result from the restrictions of being crippled as well as impoverished.

In developing a curriculum for crippled boys and girls, the teacher faces unique problems calling for special skill. Chief among these is mastery at motivating a child who has immense difficulty with muscular tasks, such as controlling a pencil in writing, or who suffers lethargy after prolonged illness.

Teachers of handicapped children must respond to each child individually, especially in trying to overcome the effects of his exclusion from activities generally considered essential for academic readiness and overall development. As an added problem, some handicapped children will benefit from participation in a regular classroom on a part-time schedule, while others must spend their entire school day in a special class.

It is urgent that handicapped children be guaranteed the benefits of a teacher properly trained in these specialized skills.

A special program for the physically handicapped may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Under special circumstances funds may also be obtained from a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

The Early Years

*Preschool Education and Project Head Start**

For reasons illustrated in the introductory section of this booklet, special preschool education for children as young as three years old from disadvantaged home environments has rapidly become regarded by educational authorities as essential. If a three- or four-year-old child can be stimulated in a prekindergarten to learn the simple things he does not learn from his parents—how to talk in sentences; how to make a mark with a pencil; how to tell one color from another; the idea of counting, of wondering why, of trying to find something out, of asking an adult a question; and, most important of all, learning to feel the simple nourishing emotion that comes from experiencing success—he may get a head start on later success in school. Project Head Start demonstrated this summer the value of combining educational activities with a good health program, social services, nutritional improvement and intensive work with families. Such a comprehensive approach to child development offers the greatest promise for improvement.

Experimental classes for deprived prekindergartners have been in existence for more than four years. Experience has shown that classes seem to work best when there is a teacher and aide for each 15 pupils. Teachers bombard the children with chatter. They name colors, foods, and animals; they play with puzzles and geometric blocks to help them learn sizes and shapes. They take children on trips to museums, stores, and construction projects. In class children play with telephones to stimulate talk. They speak into tape recorders and enjoy the surprise of hearing their words played back. In one class children, unaccustomed to conversation, have been found to speak readily if both teacher and child have a puppet through which conversation is made. In another class a tape recorder is built into a mechanical clown. When a child speaks, the clown's nose lights up. This reward is augmented by the thrill to a child of hearing a playback of his own voice.

These early experimental classes produced highly significant increases in the average IQ's and school readiness of the children. It should be pointed out, however, that the longest-running of these experiments

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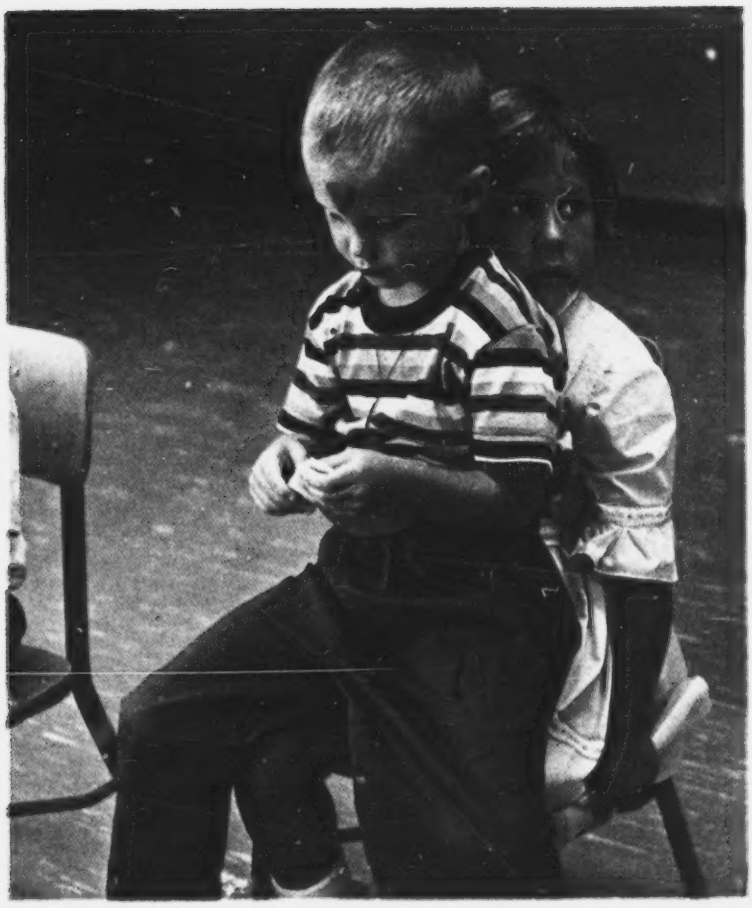
* *Detailed suggestions for beginning Head Start type classes can be obtained by writing to Project Head Start, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C. 20506.*



indicated some decline in IQ scores after the children entered primary grades. The benefits of special preschool stimulation were not enough, apparently, to sustain them against the oppressiveness of their total out-of-school world. Such findings suggest the need for continued emphasis on intensified effort in the early grades. Many authorities urge that prekindergarten be followed by at least three years of learning at individual rates of progress, sometimes called nongrading. A sample description of a primary school based on individual learning rates is presented later in this chapter.

The vital importance of attacking these problems in the preschool years has recently been underlined in a major study, *Stability and Change in Human Characteristics* (published by John Wiley & Sons, 1964), by Benjamin S. Bloom, a University of Chicago education professor. According to Professor Bloom's research, a child has gone 50 percent of the way in organizing the thinking patterns that we call his intelligence by the time he has reached the age of four, and the next 30 percent by the time he is eight. The patterns of

aggressiveness in a boy are normally 50 percent established by the time he is three. Half a child's capacity for learning in school is established by the age of nine. The child's abilities and intelligence can be increased later, of course; but it is enormously harder to do.

Bloom identifies 13 factors in a small child's environment that go along with growth of intelligence. None have to do with formal school instruction. Normally, they derive from the mood of the home and relations between parents and children. These factors mainly concern the parents' expectations of a child's success, the rewards they offer for "using his head," their exposure of the child to stimulating learning experiences (aside from school), the development of language through ordinary family conversation, and the place of books, magazines, pens, and pencils in daily family life. On each of these counts, most children born into poverty—as well as many born in affluence—are cheated from birth.

A major part of preschool experimentation has been to find ways of teaching mothers how to provide more stimulating experiences at home. Many cities with new preschool centers require, as a "tuition fee" for the child, that the mother attend weekly classes in the physical and mental development of children. Mothers —and fathers, too—attend eagerly, even seeking other ways in which they can contribute.

In many cities willing mothers and fathers are hired to serve as teachers' aides. For some, this can be the beginning of new careers in early childhood education. They also witness the stimulating experiences and "verbal bombardment" aimed at children, later discussing with teachers how these experiences may be continued in the home. In a Michigan preschool, teachers make a home visit every afternoon, ostensibly to report to parents on a child's progress. But the visit is mostly taken up with engaging the mother, the preschool pupil, and perhaps half a dozen brothers and sisters in games, story reading, and work with crayons and paper, thus encouraging the delighted mother to become a preschool teacher herself in her own home.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

The Early Years: Kindergarten to Third Grade

This is the time when a number is affixed to a child's identity which may affect his entire life. The number is his IQ. Based on it, teachers bound by tradition and uninformed of recent discoveries will "predict" the success or failure of a child. That "prediction," transformed into an expectation, may guarantee a child's failure or success. Some teachers, seeing a child with a low IQ, say of 75, *expect* him to fail—and, as a consequence, he probably will.

The child's fate, in fact, may be even worse. Tens of thousands of children with IQ's in the 70's have been classified as "mentally retarded," sometimes lumped with children of serious organic brain damage. A potentially bright and productive child may thus have his fate cruelly sealed.

Recent research, including the experimental classes of prekindergartners, demonstrates that IQ's are changeable. Many children, testing at first in the 70's, have rapidly been raised to a norm of 100 and higher. For the child of deep deprivation in his early years, the IQ score is apparently more a measure of his intellectual stimulation than of inborn potential. Schools in impoverished communities have high concentrations of children with low IQ's, a clear result of the impoverishment of a total environment. A teacher may reinforce this impoverishment by undue reaction to a number which is thought to represent his potential. On the other hand, a teacher seeing beyond these numbers, with faith in a child's inborn ability and eagerness to learn, may fulfill the ultimate in the teaching profession—helping a child seek and reach the limit of his real ability.

As every teacher knows, reading and the development of language skills are the chief foundations of knowledge. Without them, all later schooling is built as though on quicksand and soon collapses. The idea of language, whether written or spoken, is not a skill independent of other experience, but is an outgrowth of it. A child trained to be sensitive to experience and aware of the distinctions among things, colors, and sensations seldom has difficulty in learning the words that describe what he knows.

A wise use of Federal funds would be to give each child a firm foundation of language skill in the early grades.

An Oral Language Skills Program: Grades One and Two

A school in Maryland recently instituted a program that began with testing newly enrolled first graders for reading readiness. Many of these six-year-olds from poor families showed a lack of readiness typical of normal three- and four-year-olds. Children with deficient readiness are now placed in classes of no more than 20 pupils. Ideally, children with serious deficiency might be placed in even smaller groups to receive more individual attention; thus, for a small extra investment, the educational return of their later years of schooling is increased.

Classroom work emphasizes multisensory experience —exciting things to see, hear, feel, smell, and taste— and learning words to describe a child's world of sensation. Special activities are designed to combine sensations and express them: "The cold water feels wet." "The rough potato chip tastes salty."

Teachers specializing in art, music, and physical education supplement the classroom teacher's efforts by encouraging skills in observing, listening, and physical coordination.

Follow-up research has indicated substantial benefits to the children of this program. Other benefits, not quantitatively measurable, are the joy experienced by children as they feel themselves becoming successful learners and the heightened dedication that teachers feel as they cooperate in expanding the experiences of their pupils.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Special teachers, for remedial purposes, may be financed by a Community Action Program.

Auditory and Language Development: Primary Grades

Pupils lacking normal preschool experience come to class equipped not only with inadequate vocabularies but with undeveloped listening skills. A child must learn the rewards that come from listening with selective attention.

In one rural Southern school a speech therapist tests children for language skills and selective attention. Children lacking such development are given special training in the two chief aspects of oral communication, listening and production of speech. Classroom teachers and the speech therapist then cooperate in providing special experiences in hearing—and naming with specific words—common environmental sounds such as "horn" and "bell," "scratch" and "squeak." The sounds of words and the objects they identify are also emphasized: "pen" and "pencil," "hat" and "head," "hit" and "hop." A child's ears are enlivened upon hearing and identifying the sounds of someone coughing, someone sneezing, doors gently closed and doors slammed, the pounding of a hammer, the rasping of a saw, the scratch and squeal of chalk on a blackboard, and so forth. He also learns the interesting, identifiable sound of silence. It all adds up to skilled discrimination among a variety of gross sounds, the subtle differences among speech syllables, voice inflection, rhythms, training in auditory memory, and, most useful of all, vocabulary building.

The auditory training goes beyond simple disconnected experiences, such as dropping pencils and slamming doors. It includes listening to stories and making conversation, sometimes simple playacting and role playing. Also, "experience trips" are scheduled, during which the teacher emphasizes listening to sounds and learning names of things heard.

In the second and third grades use of tape recorders can be of great value. Children may listen to tapes, easily prepared by teachers, that illustrate basic phonetic sounds and the frequently subtle differences between them. This listening can be coordinated with writing exercises as children mark down appropriate letters or syllables to denote sounds. Many schools find it valuable to let children record their own speech, either in phonetic and word exercises or, better still, in playacting or ordinary conversation. While people usually tend to take for granted the clarity and correctness of their own speech, they are made objectively aware of their poor speech habits upon hearing themselves talk on tape. Children have shown remarkable

improvement in speech development after hearing themselves recorded. As an added benefit, the excitement of speaking into a tape recorder and hearing one's self back has proved a great stimulant in encouraging verbal activity in nonverbal children.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Use of specialists in speech and hearing to assist in the training of disadvantaged children may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

An Enrichment Program Involving Parents: Kindergarten to Third Grade

A small Midwestern city has been conducting an apparently successful experiment involving parents in four schools where children of the poor are concentrated.

In these schools the academic achievement of almost all the children had fallen two or three years behind the national average by the time the children were old enough for junior high school. School officials decided to focus their corrective measures on the early grades. A major element was wide-scale involvement of parents.

To start the program, tests were given long before enrollment to determine the children's readiness for school, as well as to screen out the physically handicapped and severely mentally retarded. Also, extensive interviews were held with parents to help form an approximate record of the experience each child had gleaned from his home and neighborhood environment.

During the summer preceding enrollment orientation classes were held for parents, while children visited kindergarten rooms to become familiarized with equipment and social situations. The orientation sessions helped inform parents of what a child would do in school, what a teacher would expect of him, and what a parent might do to make a child's school experience more useful. Almost all the parents harbored unpleasant memories of their own unsuccessful school experiences, and some were totally unschooled. The ideas that school teachers and officials encouraged parental interest in school was, for most of them, a welcome surprise.

After school began, teachers held monthly meetings with groups of parents. They talked about how a

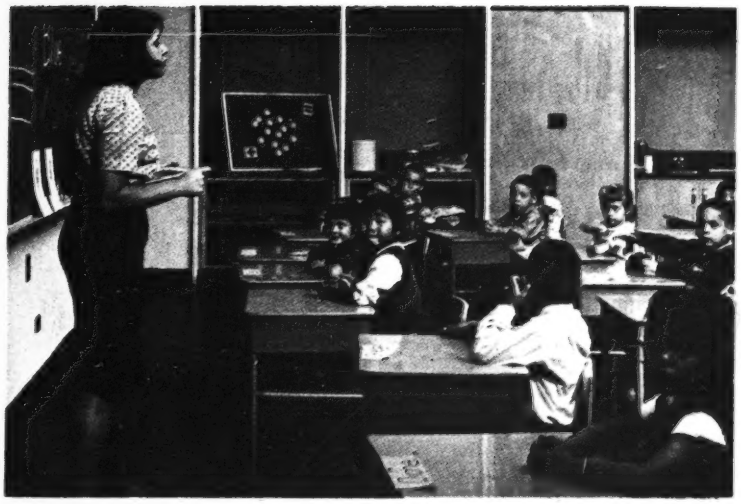
child learns in school and at home, how he acquires discipline, and how he maintains good health. In small groups, parents were invited to classrooms to enjoy their children's presentation of plays, completed projects, skill at organized games, response to supervision, and learning of such good habits as cleaning up after fingerpainting. Parents became so gratified at seeing their children's success that a group of fathers and mothers volunteered to come to school on a series of Saturdays to build a miniature house and yard. To heighten the parents' involvement, teachers encouraged suggestions, even contributions of useful objects: a few aluminum screens, someone's leftover paint, a few pieces of lawn furniture.

At intervals teachers visited homes, partly to inform parents of a child's progress, but chiefly to provide themselves with a firsthand view of each child's home background. In addition to coaching parents in stimulating the minds of their children, social workers offered help in coping with family problems that might affect a child's success in school: budget, nutrition, organization of a home for study, planning of family activities, and planning and encouragement of games.

In 1963 the effort was expanded to include a community counseling program. A trained worker met weekly with groups of parents and also met separately with groups of pupils and teachers. The worker encouraged expression of problems between teachers and pupils and between parents and children. The groups discussed possible solutions.

A program for activities carried on during the school day in classrooms may be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Activities carried on during after-school hours and Saturdays and activities with parents also may be supported under Title I of this Act as well as by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

Duplicating the Techniques of a Creative Primary Teacher



A creative primary-grade teacher in Virginia employs a number of learning activities that may be departures from tradition, but which have obvious academic value.

His music program emphasizes body movement, rhythmic tapping, swaying, and singing to go along with counting and storytelling. For example, children act out the sounds and movements of geese, keeping time to music of varied tempos. Then, to relate music with visual art, children are encouraged to draw geese in a pictorial background to illustrate a story about them. The teacher may simply ask children to draw what a piece of music "looks like," a practice most useful for stimulating free-flowing imagination.

He uses small, colored lengths of wood called Cuisenaire rods to represent the numbers one to ten; a piece representing "five," for example, is five times as long as that representing "one." Children invent and solve simple addition and subtraction problems empirically by arranging the rods in rows. There is evidence that when children have such concrete experience with numbers, they more easily master the abstractions required to perform arithmetic computations with paper and pencil.

The teacher has influenced colleagues in his school to use the services of an artful storyteller who is associated with a nearby library. The storyteller, in the manner of a medieval balladeer, goes from classroom to classroom reading in a dramatic manner that introduces the joys to be found between the covers of a book. The liveliness of the storytelling not

only develops appreciation for language but helps increase a child's listening span. As a special treat—as well as a stimulator of fluent imagination—the storyteller sometimes builds a story to a climax and, instead of finishing it, asks each child to create his own ending.

Frequently the teacher and storyteller tape-record the made-up endings. This is the children's reward for their creativity. But the tapes also may be used later to point out how they might improve their speech. As a pupil learns to speak more carefully, the teacher bolsters his pride by demonstrating this success on tape. After a visit by the storyteller, sometimes the teacher asks the children to record the most interesting new words they have learned. This is a lively, novel technique for vocabulary building. Besides enjoying the playback of his own choice of words, the child hears the recorded repetition of those by his classmates, an exciting substitute for drill.

Exchanges of such inventive ideas by teachers, as well as training in the use of them, can become an important part of teacher development and training programs.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Employment of special personnel such as storytellers, if used after school or on Saturdays, as well as special summer programs of this nature may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

One Teacher's Program for Disadvantaged Children in a Rural School

This is a vivid example of what happened when one teacher in a rural school—with his principal's support—attempted to overcome the disadvantages of his second-grade pupils. It illustrates what can be elicited from a teacher when he knows that his superiors invite and support originality and initiative.

Limiting class enrollment to only 20 pupils, all disadvantaged, the teacher divided his room into sections, each child having space for personal possessions and privacy if he wished it. Children of the poor frequently lack these privileges in their homes.

With a special budget arranged by his principal, the teacher acquired tools, dolls, juvenile furniture, puppets, vanity tables, articles of personal grooming, games, models, books, pictures, flowers, food displays, household articles, art supplies, inexpensive microscopes, aquariums, globes and maps, costumes, typewriters, an adding machine, rocks, bird nests, cushions, rugs, musical instruments, a record player, a wading pool, bulletin boards, mail order catalogs, magazines and newspapers. This impressive store of treasures wasn't as expensive as one might think; much of it was collected from the discarded property of teachers and parents, then freshened for new use.

The teacher was careful not to make all these materials available at any one time. He kept bringing out new items as the children's interest waned in old ones. He permitted a child to follow an interest without interruption as long as it lasted, believing that curiosity alone would lead a child into more complex experience.

To these activities the teacher added a personalized reading program—sometimes reading to a small group, or just to a single child while others were busy with other work. Constantly, he rearranged materials about the room to foster independent activity. He also scheduled field trips for the entire class, encouraging lively discussion to stimulate observation, growth of vocabulary, and the development of expression.

The teacher and his principal report clearly visible changes in the behavior of these children compared with similar children in the teacher's previous classes. Their interest, academic achievement, discipline (including consideration for others), self-management, and, perhaps most important of all, their self-esteem and feelings of success appear vastly improved.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Visual and printed materials may also be purchased with funds under Title II of this Act. Field trips may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

Organization of Classes for Individual Progress

Classrooms of children engaged in tasks equal to their individual abilities and not identified by grade level are gaining increased acceptance in many school districts and at various levels of elementary and secondary schools. This system, sometimes called "nongrading," may offer special opportunities for disadvantaged children in the primary grades.

"First grade work" is an educator's observation of what a six-year-old child should be capable of doing, *according to the national average.* By definition, however, the readiness of the disadvantaged child is below the national average.

Can't the level of a child's lessons be dictated by what he individually *needs to learn next,* without reference to time, speed of his schoolmates, or national averages? Can't he be taught and promoted as required by his own ability, instead of by comparison with others? Would it not be better for a six-year-old to sit beside an eight-year-old who faces the same academic challenge than to keep him chained to other six-year-olds with whom he has almost nothing in common except the year they were born?

These goals are accomplished by a system of individualized progress. The system also makes it unnecessary to hold back a slow-learning first grader to repeat a whole year of "first grade" challenges for which he may not have been ready in the first place. Instead of being dubbed a failure, he is permitted to keep working on elementary tasks until he has mastered them, then he immediately moves on to more difficult tasks—thus becoming a success. Conversely, a fast-learning child is not forced to mark time while his classmates plod to catch up. This prevents him from losing enthusiasm and from slowing the growth of his learning skill. It also prevents him from missing important stages in skill development, which may occur when a child "skips" a grade and misses a whole year's work.

There are numerous ways to break the lockstep restrictions on a pupil's progress in school. An individual-progress class is not a change in curriculum, but merely a change in organization and assignment of pupils. If anything, it may enhance a teacher's opportunity to use the good instructional methods in which he was trained.

In one California school organized for individual progress, the labels of grades one through eight have been abolished, and 14 "levels" of curriculum have been substituted. A child moves from level to level

as soon as he is ready, without regard to age or to the length of time spent in the previous level. After summer vacation, he resumes where he left off in June. A fast-learning child may be promoted to high school in seven years, but not sooner, lest his social and physical development lead to other problems. In saving the one year, however, he has not skipped a year of lesson material.

As a child demonstrates by testing that he has accomplished the work of one level in a major subject, he is shifted to another group within a class or from one class to another, where he will meet the new challenges for which he is now ready. Readiness for a new level is chiefly determined by reading ability since most other learning is based on it. However, other subjects as well as social and emotional development are considered.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

A Summer Program for Migrant Children

A county in the rich fruit-growing region of central California, with an increasing middle-class suburban population, recently became dramatically aware of the special educational deficiencies of children from migratory farm families. Its school system established a summer program for migratory children, emphasizing enrichment of community experience. The program was aimed mainly at primary graders, although activities were provided for older children as well.

In examining its previous experience with summer programs, the faculty decided to shift from an emphasis on classwork normally geared to average children in each grade. Instead, they substituted field trips to a fire house, a police station, a hospital, a local cannery, and an airport (where they talked with a pilot and a weatherman). A health and physical education program included examinations by a doctor (who held a question-and-answer session), the showing of films about good health habits, and organized games in a city park.

In addition, children received an hour of remedial reading instruction daily in small groups. This was followed by three hours of group work in other sub-

jects, or in shop work and crafts chosen by the child. Afternoons were spent in swimming, drama, sports, and games.

Coupled with these activities for broadening the experience of children, special effort was made to enroll their parents in adult education classes for language skills and community orientation. In these classes parents were informed of training programs that would increase their occupational skills. Enthusiastic parents were enlisted as "missionaries" to work with the school staff director, the state migrant ministry, and the local church council to scout among farm labor camps for other parents and children to join the program.

School instructors, the nurse and subprofessional aides visited migrant camps and conducted discussions on the special educational disadvantages of migrant children and parents and how they might be overcome.

Employment of subprofessional aides—half of them members of migrant families, including many teenagers—enabled a "teacher"-pupil ratio of one to eight. Aides listened to individual students read, stimulated conversation on field trips, supervised the serving of snacks, took attendance, and helped to arrange equipment.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, or by a local Community Action Program or special program for migratory workers funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

The Middle Years

The Middle Years: Grades Four to Six

Grades four to six are perhaps the most difficult years for educators to deal with in designing programs for the disadvantaged.

Even for more advantaged children, these years are puzzling enough. In the normally developed child of 9, 10, or 11 a new scope of curiosity and "doing" appears. A boy of this age takes the alarm clock apart; empties his father's shaving cream in the sink to see how the aerosol bomb works; is no longer interested in storybook pictures of fish, but wants to see a real electric eel in an aquarium; and not only worships Willie Mays, but works to imitate the finest nuances of how he swings a bat and leaps for a ball.

For the normally advantaged child this is a time for organizing the basic learning of the early grades—simple reading, simple arithmetic, relatively simple play—into new, complex patterns as he reaches forward toward his new conception of adulthood. The disadvantaged child is driven by the same instincts. But lacking mastery of his early school experience, he must find other ways to feed his drive toward growth. If he can't find his excitement in school work, he will find it elsewhere—in the streets; in clandestine, sometimes destructive play; in rebellion against his teacher, perhaps even against the idea of "success" on which his teacher keeps harping and while doing so, almost

in the same breath, convinces the child that he is a school failure.

If the disadvantaged child of this age has failed to master early-grade fundamentals, his catch-up work must be based on new forms. If he is to learn reading of simple words, he needs emotionally charged stories to make them worth learning. Biographies and histories about his minority may attract him. Arithmetic, more than ever, must have real-life meaning—as "story" problems, construction tasks, and, best of all, games and puzzles. Simple science, provided it is not theoretical but visible and dramatic, is a challenge for him, especially if he is permitted to perform the wonder of cause and effect with his own hands. He especially wants physical tasks—building things, disassembling things, mixing things, *doing* things. Programmed instruction on teaching machines has been found to be effective with disadvantaged students, if for no other reason than because the pupil is *doing* something to make the machine work and the machine rapidly presents him with something new to do.

Too often a teacher is tempted to make conventional judgments about whether this child is headed toward "vocational" or "nonvocational" school work. At this stage all learning leads toward the skills of work as well as life enrichment. What the child needs, more than anything else, is learning how to learn.

Summer and After-School Growth Programs

Some of the most successful efforts with middle-year children have placed learning tasks in an out-of-school or camp atmosphere, as well as in Saturday and after-school programs. While summer programs are the most ambitious—and probably the most fruitful—undertakings, their activities, in the main, can be duplicated in after-school projects. In fact, a school system planning a program for the summer of 1966 might learn a great deal through an after-school program in the preceding spring.

The schools of a Southern city recently conducted a summer session for disadvantaged children referred by principals, teachers, school psychologists, and social workers. The school emphasized the "doing" activities of shop, homemaking, and arts and crafts. Academic work also was scheduled, with special effort to relate reading, writing, and figuring with those "doing" tasks. A thick, colorfully illustrated mail-order catalog of shop and craft materials became a fascinating reader and arithmetic text with real-life meaning; arithmetic problems based on measuring pieces of leather and wood in a craft project stimulated children to practice what they may have failed to learn out of a school book. The summer session also included field trips to places of interesting adult work, as well as camping with an emphasis on observing natural science. Physical fitness in the form of active, organized games also was stressed.

Transportation was provided by the schools. To encourage a friendly, personal relationship between teachers and children, a maximum of 10 students were in the charge of each teacher. Teachers participated in planning goals and activities.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Summer Remedial Program: Grades Four to Six

In one Eastern county each school offers an academic summer program aimed directly at remedial work in reading and mathematics. Classes are limited to six pupils, permitting close individual attention to a student's problems. Teachers are assisted by a remedial reading specialist.

Class periods last 90 minutes and are scheduled five days a week for six weeks. A pupil in the reading class continues to meet with a reading specialist after the school year resumes.

Pupils attending the 1965 six-week summer session showed an average gain of five months in reading and mathematics abilities. Some students tested at an achievement level two years higher than before the program.

School districts for which such a summer session would be impractical might accomplish comparable achievement by scheduling remedial sessions after school and on Saturdays. Schools may also wish to combine the advantages of such an academic program with the play aspects of a summer session. This could be done by gearing remedial school work to the craft and creative activities of shop, homemaking, dramatics, and activity clubs.

A Summer Camp Reading Program

A citywide antipoverty group in New England conducted an apparently successful reading program for boys in an away-from-home camp setting. Children participated in a regular camp program, but also attended daily remedial reading sessions. The project also included publication of a biweekly camp newspaper. The special environment of the camp noticeably motivated the youngsters.

Summer camp programs may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. They may also be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

Developing Successful Field Trips

Field study trips involve costs in money and teacher time, but can be immensely valuable if imaginatively conceived. They seem to be best when children themselves not only help plan the trip, but initiate it.

A fifth-grade class studying a unit on living things recently showed an unusual interest in fish. Pupils wanted to know how fish were born, what they ate, and how they lived without air. The teacher, responding to their evident interest in the classroom goldfish tank, suggested a trip to a nearby goldfish hatchery where they could ask questions of a man who worked there. The children reacted eagerly. Before the trip the teacher extended her pupils' participation by leading a discussion on what they ought to wear, the need for bringing sandwiches from home, how to conduct themselves on the bus, and how to ask questions so as to make the man feel glad they had come. Instead of giving instructions on discipline, she merely posed questions and the children came up with the answers.

At the hatchery the children were amazed at the quantity of fish and variety of sizes. After they returned to the classroom the teacher drew on their enthusiasm by helping them plan further research. Having seen the real thing, the children were surprisingly eager to dig further information about fish out of encyclopedias and simple science books which might ordinarily have bored them.

Their research led to an argument among the children as to what water temperatures and plant life were necessary for the survival of other kinds of fish. Thereupon, the teacher suggested a trip to a trout hatchery. Interest again soared. Later, new research projects were invented for comparing the differences in the way trout and goldfish live.

Word of their enthusiasm spread beyond the classroom. One parent became so impressed by the industry of the teacher and her children that he invited the class to visit his small farm and to fish in his stocked pond. When the class counted its catch of 60 fish, excitement hit new heights. Spurred on by this new knowledge of the abundance of fish, later discussion turned to differences between fishing for recreation and commercial fishing.

The teacher then assigned creative writing tasks on the subject of fish and arithmetic problems of the kind a fisherman might face. The children tackled

these assignments with zest. A few of the children, however, were so far behind in their language skills they could not write down the interesting thoughts they had in mind. The teacher permitted these children to dictate their compositions to others who could write better, thus dramatizing the usefulness of correct spelling and the ability to create sentences. These "backward" children soon invested themselves in new efforts to learn writing, with evident progress.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Learning About the City

The great migratory wave in American life is from country to city. Tens of thousands of children swept up in this wave are transplanted from a rural variety of poverty to the more oppressive urban ghetto. They may suffer from what social scientists call "cultural shock." Such children have little conception of what happens in cities or even what they look like. Trips to and around the city, routine for more privileged children, can help equalize the impoverished child's knowledge of modern realities.

As an example, some 500 sixth-graders from West Virginia schools made a three-day tour of Washington, Baltimore, and Annapolis. Educators at a university helped plan the trip.

In the nation's capital pupils visited the White House, the Smithsonian Institution, the FBI building, and President Kennedy's grave and attended a big league baseball game. In Maryland they visited Fort McHenry, the State House, the U.S. Naval Academy, and the colonial section of Annapolis.

In addition to these places of historic interest, the children also saw urban residential areas, including slums. Discussions were held on how education helps some people to live in comfortable areas, while the lack of it sometimes relegates people to slums.

Living Among Many Kinds of Americans

Among their many possible forms of educational deprivation, children are handicapped if they live, talk, and work with persons only of their own ethnic group. They are forced to rely on stereotyped ideas, often dangerously distorted, of people from other backgrounds.

A Midwestern school system has incorporated in its "middle-years" social studies courses a program of special opportunities for children of low income families to become acquainted with people of other backgrounds. For example, in schools of all-white, English-speaking neighborhoods, teachers have arranged for visits by Negro, American Indian, and foreign-background citizens of skill and accomplishment—a mechanic, a doctor, a policeman, a computer programmer, an artist—who address classes, invite questions, and, if practical, demonstrate their work. Sometimes they speak of the history and customs of their people and of their personal struggles in achieving their accomplishments.

Children visit neighborhoods in which ethnic groups cluster; visit stores, community centers, and churches. Occasionally arrangements are made for a light lunch in a neighborhood restaurant. Back in class, they hear the music, examine samples of art, and make costumes that are typical of various ethnic groups.

To correct the distorted idea that all Negroes live in obviously poor homes, children visit a neighborhood of middle-class Negroes and talk with residents about their work, their education, their community life.

To emphasize that individuals cannot be described by stereotyped categories, the study goes beyond ethnic groups. Children spend an hour in a courtroom, then visit a police station where they learn from the desk sergeant that all troublemakers and criminals are not alike. From tasting various samples of baking, they learn that food tastes differ.

The children write letters to others in a school that is dominated by a different ethnic group. Letters are answered back and forth until pen-pal relationships are solidified. Then the children of the first school visit those of the second, and the visit is returned. Their background of letter-writing usually gives children a head start in conversation dealing with people of various races and creeds.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. It may also be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

School Equipment To Support Good Ideas

Too often we try to solve difficult problems by seeking *things* instead of ideas. Yet good ideas often can be more effective when supported by carefully chosen equipment. One Eastern school superintendent recently obtained a grant of about $10,000 to enable an experiment in one of his elementary schools. Teachers were to develop specific educational goals, be given the sum of money, and have complete freedom to buy whatever they wanted to achieve their goals.

The teachers decided to emphasize "real-life" learning tasks in place of conventional class tasks that children often regard as the artificial work of school.

Then preparation of the shopping list began. The teachers quickly learned that, sizeable as their grant was, they could not go out on an indiscriminate shopping spree. Thus, it was necessary for them to examine closely the learning value of each item of equipment. By the time they scaled down the list and were ready to buy, their picture of a new learning program was sharply focused in their minds. Also, because they had to reject so many useful items, the teachers were more determined than ever to extract the most value out of those they could acquire.

Discussion had led them to believe that pupils lacked concepts in social studies and that the subject had to be presented more vividly. The teachers decided that carefully selected audiovisual equipment would help turn abstractions into concrete observations. They bought a photocopy machine so that each child might have his personal copy of study materials; an overhead projector and overlay-making machine; an 8mm movie camera and projector for filming aspects of life in their town for class production and discussion; a filmstrip projector and filmstrips, and a previewer to aid in lesson planning; a 35mm camera for slides and a slide projector; equipment and supplies for a photographic darkroom; and tape recorders, record players, and records, as well as headphones so that a portion of the group might listen while the rest were engaged in other tasks.

They bought tools, work tables, and supplies for crafts and hobbies. Many of the children were eager for the "doing" activities, but had had no opportunity to use tools and learn skills. The teachers responded to a lively interest of girls by acquiring sewing machines. Another real-life home-making device was a washing machine with which pupils could wash their gym suits, and, if they wished, their personal articles.

To aid with health education and to compensate for a lack in many homes, a school shower was installed.

Adding machines were used in arithmetic classes to stimulate interest. Children unmotivated in addition and subtraction became highly interested when they could perform these operations on a machine. Teachers taught multiplication by letting a child discover how it is really an extension of adding: for example, 15 multiplied by 12 could be figured by registering 15 on the machine 12 times. Playing on the same motivations, typewriters were added to English classes. Children showed a new, lively interest in spelling words and composing paragraphs when they could do so on the machine.

To capitalize on the children's interest in music, the purchase included a stereo phonograph to enliven awareness of parts of an orchestra. Children learned to identify the sounds of each instrument, then, listening to the stereo, they named each as it was played in an orchestra, pointing in the "direction" of the instrument. Also, a piano was bought for use in choral training. TV sets were purchased for class presentation of programs from an educational station in a nearby large city.

A valuable purchase at small cost was an array of magazine and out-of-town newspaper subscriptions. Sometimes articles from these periodicals were photocopied and distributed in class for homework assignments and class discussion. The publications were kept in the library within easy reach of pupils and teachers. Parents, too, were invited to school to read them.

Some of the money was set aside to pay for study trips, particularly for viewing science and nature. Binoculars were purchased to enhance the value of these trips.

The teachers squeezed into their shopping list some essential books, charts, maps, and globes which had been lacking.

In their searching discussion of things to buy, the teachers became even more aware of a fundamental principle in education—that, if a choice must be made, the right kind of people are more important than the right kind of things. Many of them wished their special grant had been used to add to their staff instead of their equipment. Highest on their list of new staff needs were remedial reading teachers, a speech and language development specialist, a school social worker, a curriculum coordinator, a library aide, and teacher aides.

The employment of remedial staff may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, may also be used to support these activities and to purchase such equipment. Title II of this Act can provide printed and published materials, including tapes and records. For other instructional equipment, Title III of the National Defense Education Act should also be investigated.

Guidance for the Middle Years

As almost any teacher knows and numerous studies have shown, a dropout can be spotted long beforehand. The red flags begin to appear as early as the fourth grade. They accumulate in grades five and six. Even though failure may be rooted in the home environment and preschool life of the pupil, a good school experience in the middle years may direct a child toward success.

Many schools are finding guidance and counseling an essential tool. Guidance for the middle years differs from that of the high school—which emphasizes counseling for college or occupational preparation. Guidance for the middle years is usually centered on improving a child's attitude toward school, his social group, and his family—preparation for becoming a more integrated human being before poor social attitudes become ingrained.

A program in a middle-sized Midwestern city illustrates this. A counselor meets regularly with groups of students referred for their learning prob-

lems by teachers. The technique of group counseling, in addition to individual counseling is believed by many to be especially effective for such pupils. They are encouraged to explore not only their own personal problems, but those of others as well. Each member of the group is encouraged to suggest solutions that might help others. Thus he develops insights for helping himself.

Weekly conferences are also held with teachers. One purpose is to communicate to them what each child's problems may be and the self-help approaches the pupil is developing. Another important purpose, however, parallels that of the group discussion with pupils. As each teacher suggests to his colleagues ways for helping particular students, he, too, develops an understanding of his own weaknesses.

In addition, the guidance counselor holds meetings with parents of the children in the discussion group. Thus efforts by the student and teacher are coordinated with efforts by parents at home.

A good guidance counselor is hard to find. In addition to necessary training and empathy, his skills require the ability to communicate subtle thoughts expressed in one group to members of another.

Frequently the aid of outside consultants—at universities or mental health clinics—can be useful in finding a suitable counselor to employ, as well as for help in planning and testing a program.

Careful preparation of teachers and administrators in advance of launching a guidance counseling program is essential. While acceptance of such a program by children is rarely a problem, teachers may be suspicious, or even hostile, if they are not sufficiently prepared for accepting it. With lack of cooperation, the program may be doomed. But with understanding and support by teachers and staff, such a program may uplift the atmosphere of the entire school.

The primary sources of support for this kind of effort should be under Title V of the National Defense Education Act, which is administered by state departments of education. If funds from this source are exhausted, guidance programs may be funded under either the local Community Action Program or Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

The Teen Years

High school failure is often determined before enrollment in grammar school and can be predicted with increasing certainty as a disadvantaged child painfully gropes his way through the middle years. Yet there is convincing and inspiring evidence that seemingly hopeless, hostile high school failures can be redirected toward productive lives.

Promising programs have been developed in both rural and urban areas giving emphasis to a variety of new kinds of educational activity. The world-of-work which surrounds the school environment has been probed through direct work experience programs by teen-agers, as well as through the introduction of workers of various skills and talents into the classroom. Guidance which prepares students for making realistic vocational choices is proving successful. New kinds of courses to develop specialized competency are being taught. College orientation programs for students who would normally never aspire to college

are now underway. Parents, retired citizens, former school dropouts, as well as high school students themselves, are all being used in support of new school curriculums designed to meet the educational problems of adolescents.

The following pages present a sampling of case stories which may help local schools save disadvantaged teen-agers for usefulness to themselves, their communities, and their country while there is still time.

A Comprehensive Classroom and World-of-Work Program

A remarkable program for disadvantaged high school students, combining bold innovations in the classroom, practical job training, and parent involvement, was developed in a small Illinois city after an 11-year motivational study of youth.

The classroom portion of the program has three chief goals: (a) communication skills development, (b) consumer and family skills, and (c) job information. Classroom teachers are given special training in the use of unusual developmental reading tools such as magazines, comic books, short stories, and graded reading kits chosen for their strong motivational content. Students are given wide latitude in making their own choices of reading material, then may proceed at their own speed, as in nongraded classes. Also, individualized attention is given in arithmetic, speaking, and listening.

Normally this city's high school teachers teach six hours a day with one hour free for planning. Teachers in the demonstration project, however, have two hours a day to develop their individualized curriculum. They are organized in an ingenious modification of the team teaching idea. Instead of buffeting students from one specialized teacher to another as high school programs normally require, each teacher assumes the predominant responsibility for a group of 22 students, with whom he spends three hours a day. This enables him to become more familiar with each student's individual problems. This 22-student group stays with the same teacher for two years; in some cases, three. During one of the teacher's two daily planning hours he meets with other project teachers at his grade level and with specialized teachers of industrial arts, home economics, and science to discuss each student and to coordinate lesson plans. In addition, the project

teachers attend a summer workshop at full pay to evaluate their year's work and plan for the following year.

The consumer education phase of classroom work illustrates the concreteness of study. Responding to the reality that more than half the girls in the group marry before they are 18, the study is based on actual visits to stores to simulate purchases of furniture, food, and clothing; extensive practice with mail-order catalogs; and mathematics instruction directed at household budgeting. Both know-how and motivation are instilled by driving students around to "shop" for the purchase of a house, emphasizing such factors as choice of size, neighborhood, and price. Later, back in the classroom, students calculate the mortgage payments and down payment required for their "purchase" and estimate the personal income needed to make the purchase a reality. This study is followed by "furnishing" the house and pitting the cost of furnishings against other possible purchases within the student's projected income. Needless to say, many students have an eye-opening experience in confronting such budget realities.

Introduction to the "world of work" involves four elements: (a) classroom study, (b) "make-work" practice within the school, (c) real work experience at the project's training school, and (d) employment for pay in an outside supervised job with school credit.

Classroom study in the "world of work" consists mainly of vocational information using vocational guidance booklets and printed materials from nearby companies, as well as field trips to hospitals, factories, farms, government offices, and libraries.

"Make work" includes the manufacture in school of items to be sold at school stores, such as United States' flags, painted flower arrangements, and ceramic novelties. The makers of these objects, as well as student salesclerks, are given shares of stock in the stores. Suggestions that result in increased sales are rewarded. As an additional kind of experience, students stuff mailings for a nearby mental health clinic and deliver handbills for the United Fund, giving them the satisfaction of contributing to community betterment.

An illustration of practical experience gained at the project's training school is work by both boys and girls in a filling station owned and operated by

the school. A teacher instructs students in problems of filling-station management, bookkeeping, maintenance, and customer relations. Practical work in such school enterprises enables students to earn from 50 cents to $1.25 an hour.

Upon achieving proficiency in a job at the filling station, a student is permitted to apply for the final phase of the world-of-work program—employment for pay outside of school. For students of demonstrated ability, some outside work has paid as much as $2.15 an hour. Most jobs are in public institutions—hospitals, libraries, and day-care centers—but many are in private industry. Students may work up to three hours a day during school hours and are given credit toward a regular high school diploma. The school also helps make arrangements for students to attend summer industrial schools to further equip them for full-time jobs upon graduation.

The parent-involvement program consists of letters, home visits by a family counselor and teachers, and group meetings of parents and teachers to ensure understanding of the program. Mothers and fathers are invited on many field trips and, to stimulate their involvement, are encouraged to help provide transportation in family cars. Parents are encouraged to speak to classes about their work experience.

One father, occupationally unskilled but very expressive and community-minded, was hired to serve as a liaison between the school and the neighborhood in promoting parent involvement. Through his door-to-door "sales effort" a high degree of parental interest and involvement was achieved.

The nonteaching staff consists of a director of administration and research, curriculum coordinator, project training school supervisor, work experience coordinator, and family visitor-counselor.

This entire program may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. The world-of-work portion may be supported by the Vocational Education Act of 1963, while its non-curricular elements would be eligible for funds from a local Community Action Program.

Classroom and Guidance Preparation for Work

An occupational orientation course, involving classroom work, field trips, and guidance, has been in operation in a Pennsylvania industrial city. It is a full-year course comprised of six-week units.

The year begins with a six-week survey of specialized occupations, including visiting lecturers and field trips to places of work in the following occupational areas: general manufacturing; clothing and textiles; communications, power, and transportation; construction; business and commerce; housing and home furnishings; home, family, health, and community; child development; and food and nutrition.

At the end of the survey unit the student is given the privilege of choosing one of the occupational areas for detailed exploration during the next six weeks of study. In addition to lecture and observation the course presents practical problems and work which students undertake individually and in small groups.

Upon completion of the unit the student may choose another occupational field to explore, or he may elect to continue for an additional six weeks in the same one. Because the options are more numerous than a student can cover in a school year, his range of choice is wide.

In final six weeks of the year the class evaluates the choices made by each of its members, helped by discussions led by the school guidance counselor. An important part of the final six weeks is discussion in the art of personal planning.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Modern Courses Supported by the Vocational Education Act of 1963

Vocational courses are expensive, and only rarely can a local school system afford a wide variety of offerings without outside help. For many years, however, federal aid was only available for courses in homemaking and agriculture. New training needs of modern industry, especially for the growing service occupations, were recognized with the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

Following are some examples of how one school system has taken advantage of the new law to institute courses geared to the modern job market.

Physical Science Technician

This course, emphasizing work applications of the applied sciences, is conducted for a minimum of two periods a day in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Students must specialize in one division of the physical sciences. The study deals with solution of practical problems arising from production, development, testing, and analysis. For example, in metallurgy a student tests materials for tensile, compressive, and impact strength, as well as creep, stress, rupture, ductility, grain structure, hardness, and internal flaws. In chemistry, students test and analyze organic and inorganic materials to determine structure, properties, and conformance to standard specifications, as well as search for new uses for materials. They perform experiments concerned with radiation effects, crystallization, viscosity, density, and specific gravity.

In physics, students learn about photographic and printing processes, ultrasonics, thermal expansion, and other specialties.

Students completing two years of this program are equipped for routine technical jobs or for enrollment in a technical college. A comparable course is conducted for preparing instrumentation technicians.

Graphic Duplication Specialist

This is a two-year program of at least three periods a day to prepare students for work in illustrating, photocopying, duplicating, typing, and filing. Graduates of the course are equipped for beginners' jobs as operators of small lithograph-offset presses, Vari-Type machines, hectographs, stencil duplicators, elec-

trostatic duplicators, paper cutters and punchers, folding machines, and binders.

Child Development

This two-year, two-hour-a-day course instructs a student in the normal physical, mental, and emotional behavior patterns of the preschool child and presents methods for creating stimulating and satisfying activities. It also takes up care of the exceptional child, nutrition, methods of discipline, and development and supervision of preschool programs.

A graduate of this course should be qualified to work under professional supervision in day-care centers, nurseries, hospitals, children's institutions, and private homes.

Other courses in the program, newly supported by the Vocational Education Act of 1963, are designed to train laundry pressers, structural fitters, distributive employees, horticulture technicians, and other specialized workers.

A program of this kind may be supported by the Vocational Education Act of 1963, as well as by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. In addition, Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 may enable funds for specialized scientific and technical training. Training programs for out-of-school youth may also be supported under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

Special College Orientation Programs

In coping with the problems of disadvantaged students, most of an educator's effort is directed toward preparing a maximum number of students for employment after leaving high school. This effort may obscure the national urgency of identifying every undermotivated and underachieving student who, through especially intensive and dedicated attention, might be lifted to college eligibility. No greater service can be performed for a disadvantaged student or his community than equipping him for a college career he might not have otherwise.

The required individual enrichment and personal attention may be expensive, but few would question its worth. Colleges today stand more ready than ever to exert every reasonable effort in opening the way for disadvantaged high school graduates. Liberal scholarships are readily available for such youngsters.

A pilot program to aid bright but undermotivated students from disadvantaged areas is being conducted by a city school system in cooperation with a technology institute. The program includes two summer sessions of six weeks each and Saturday classes during the regular school year. During the summer selected tenth-grade boys and girls receive instruction in mathematics, English, and biology on the institute campus. A public school teacher and college professor are in charge of each of the classrooms. These students live and take meals on the campus, participating in academic, cultural, and social activities. The public school principals and teachers of these children are informed of the progress of each student.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. In addition, the Office of Economic Opportunity has a special program called "Upward Bound" which relates to this area. Information on "Upward Bound" may be obtained by writing to Community Action Program, O.E.O., Washington, D.C. 20506.

Students in Community Service

A disadvantaged and unemployed teen-ager may be able to enhance his own self-esteem, as well as learn valuable working habits, through service to his community. Paid community service can also be a prime tool for influencing dropouts to resume school work.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps, created by the Economic Opportunity Act, now provides paying jobs for young people between 16 and 21 years of age who are out of school and out of work.*

Some localities have developed impressive programs of combining such youth employment with resumed schooling, future job training, and counseling.

In a New England program work crews of five or six youngsters, supervised by a slightly older foreman, put in four hours a day on such tasks as landscaping, painting, and carpentry in parks, school buildings, and other public places. To be eligible for his pay of $20 a week a crew member must attend

**Full information is available from the Neighborhood Youth Corps, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20506.*

class two afternoons a week for academic instruction given by a teacher employed by the public schools.

Of 108 youngsters who served on work crews until March 1965, 81 percent attained some success: 53 of them sustained the discipline of staying with the work crew, 22 found full-time jobs, 6 entered the Neighborhood Youth Corps, 5 returned to school, and 1 entered a Federal job-training program. This achievement is remarkable, considering the composition of the crews. Ninety percent were high school dropouts, and 35 percent had police records for offenses more serious than loitering.

Much of the success of the work-crew program is attributable to carefully chosen foremen, who themselves live in disadvantaged areas, who share backgrounds and style of talk with crew members, and who tend to be patient and sympathetic with problems that keep crew youngsters from finding their way to jobs. A young foreman, supervising a crew painting a school fence, recently explained to a visitor the backgrounds of his boys. One 17-year-old, John, had left home with his brother because of arguments with their mother. The two boys were sharing the cost of a rented room at $20 a month. The brother had been earning A's and B's in high school, then dropped out six months before graduation. He explained that he was just plain hungry and had decided to look for a job—which he was unable to find. He landed on a work crew, graduated to a Federal job-training course for machine operators, and got a full-time job. The younger brother had thus been encouraged to try and do as well.

Another crew member, 18, was already the father of one child and his 17-year-old wife was expecting another. Their main income was from public welfare, supplemented by partial work-crew pay, for a total of $240 a month.

After a period of demonstrating work discipline, good attendance, and punctuality on a work crew, a youngster is transferred to an "intermediate" crew where he works without the direct supervision of a foreman.

Preparing Rural Youngsters for Mobility

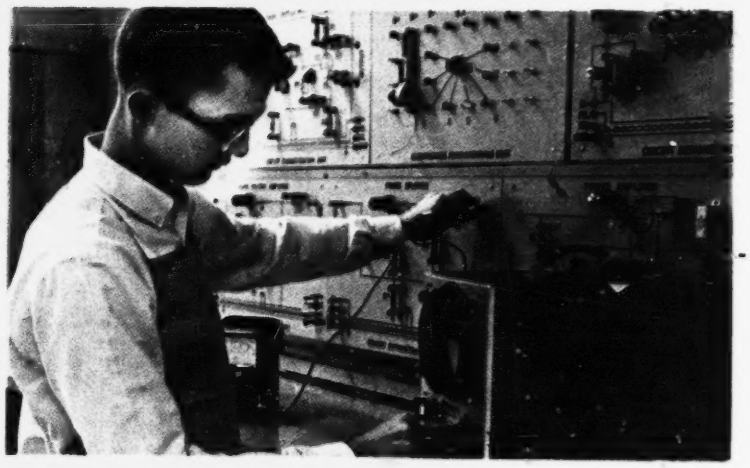
A farm community about 60 miles from a sizeable city recently became concerned, as many rural towns have, over the loss of its high school graduates to other areas of employment. The school board conducted searching discussions to try to devise courses of training that might enable youngsters to stay in their hometown. Finally they faced a painful truth: job opportunities at home were almost completely absent. No matter what students trained for, most would inevitably move to the city. The school board decided on the unusual step of preparing students for city life. They established a course intended mainly for high school seniors. The course was open, however, to other students whose teachers suspected they might drop out before graduation, as well as to any out-of-school youngster in town, whether a graduate or dropout.

The course covered the following areas:

1. *Kinds of jobs.* Students studied the "help wanted" ads of various city newspapers, discussing duties of listed jobs, advancement opportunities, necessary training, and how the training could be obtained. They visited places of work to observe people at work in jobs that might interest students.

2. *How to apply for a job.* Students filled out sample application forms and discussed what an employer would want to know in interviewing an applicant. Youngsters divided into pairs to practice job interviews. One played the role of employer, the other of applicant; then they reversed their roles.

3. *Personal papers.* Students were coached in the frequent uses of such important documents as a birth certificate, Social Security card, diplomas and school



records, selective service registration card, armed service discharge papers, vaccination certificate, marriage certificate, driver's license, and auto title certificate.

4. *City transportation and communication.* The students practiced reading city maps, studying bus routes, and estimating travel time. They looked up numbers in telephone books, simulated placing local and long-distance calls, and sending telegrams. In addition, they rehearsed suitable ways to open a business conversation on the telephone.

5. *Finding a place to live.* They studied how to find a temporary residence in a YMCA, YWCA, or low-cost hotel. This was followed by study of the differences between boarding houses, rooming houses, transient apartments rented by the week, and permanent apartments rented by the month. They learned the meaning of legal terms such as leases and evictions. They also discussed how to open a bank account.

6. *Available city services.* An important part of the course was description of public services in a city—police protection, health, and welfare—and Federal programs for job training that might be available to them.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

A School Environment for Pregnant Girls

One of the most frequent causes of girls dropping out of school is pregnancy. Most of these girls do not return to school or are not permitted to return because of school policies. Also, they are least likely, among expectant mothers, to seek prenatal and postnatal medical attention. Often their pregnancy advances to seven or eight months before they visit a doctor. Resumption of such a girl's education is necessary, not only for her own sake, but for the sake of the newborn child if the generation-to-generation chain of disadvantage is to be broken.

A California system, supported by private foundations, has instituted a unique program of special education for pregnant schoolgirls. It serves as an

outstanding example of coordinating school efforts with those of other public services.

Two experimental classes, each of 23 pregnancy-dropouts, meet daily in neighborhood recreation centers. The classes cover the schoolwork of grades nine through twelve. The YWCA provides a social worker for group and individual counseling about attitudes toward a girl's present home life, schooling, her coming child, and the outlook toward her future. When necessary the counselor refers the girl to other social service agencies, about which she might not know otherwise. A school nurse provides instruction in personal hygiene and prenatal care and makes individual home calls. The health department provides a nutritionist for instruction in preparation of special diets. Prenatal care is given at a free clinic for girls who cannot afford a private doctor. The city recreation department furnishes a program of exercises and leisure activities.

After the birth of her baby the young mother is readmitted to her class. But now her instruction emphasizes baby care and sensory stimulation of the child. Upon receiving medical clearance, the young mother returns to her regular academic studies. Of those enrolled in a pilot class for 16 girls conducted between February and June of 1964, every one returned to school after the birth of her baby.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Noncertified Aides in the Classroom

A new subprofessional job, sometimes called "school technician," is gaining acceptance by school staffs. Sometimes the most sensitive and competent teachers do not teach as well as they can because too many nonteaching chores impinge on their time. Many of these functions can be performed by housewives employed part time, recent school graduates, high school students, members of the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC), and even school dropouts. Here are some examples of tasks in which a teacher may be helped by the school technician.

1. *Audiovisual instruction:* transporting machines and setting them up for teachers whose pupils are too young to do so, ordering films, supervising groups of children at work with equipment.

2. *Science lessons:* setting up equipment for experiments, getting supplies from storage, keeping the supply closest in order, supervising small groups of children.

3. *Independent reading:* keeping the school or room library in order, listening to children read, helping maintain individual reading records.

4. *Typing original stories* written by children for a class newspaper.

5. *Arranging and supervising trips.*

6. *Art lessons:* supervising children in mixing of paints or using a paper cutter, helping children arrange bulletin boards, replenishing supplies.

7. *Supervising children* at lunch time, during recess, or after school.

8. *Producing class plays,* costuming, helping children make props, helping children memorize lines.

9. *Keeping records,* filing papers, operating a duplicating machine.

Employment of Neighborhood Youth Corps members for many of these tasks can serve a vitally important extra purpose. By giving an unemployed school dropout some responsibility in aiding a teacher,

he may develop a whole new slant on school life and may decide to return to school.

Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollment is open to young people between the ages of 16 and 21 who come from poor families. Their school backgrounds often have suffered from insufficient preparation and low achievement. Teachers using them as aides can serve an extra purpose by not regarding an NYC enrollee merely as a source of convenient, cheap labor. A responsible teacher will be mindful that carefully designed assignments and an attitude of cooperativeness can be a vital educational experience for the aide himself.

Another source of aides is provided by the College Work-Study Program (Title I-C of the Economic Opportunity Act). Under this program college students from a background of poverty may be employed by schools as well as by other public and nonprofit agencies. An inquiry at the nearest college will determine whether or not students are available. College students can be particularly valuable in taking on higher-level, specialized tasks related to their college studies, such as helping with scientific experiments, grading English papers, performing research for the teacher, conducting discussions with small groups, and serving as a coach in remedial work.

Housewives, employed part time, have been used in all of the aforementioned tasks, depending upon their ability and the willingness of a teacher to delegate tasks. Assignment of one duty—supervision of lunchrooms to free teachers for relaxation or lesson preparation—has been greeted with special gratitude by teachers. One California school district tried such duty-free noontimes in 1956. Word of the successful results spread so widely that by 1965 more than half of all California school districts had provided aides to free teachers of the noontime duty.

A program of this kind may be supported by funds under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. It may also be supported by a Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity, but only when teacher aides, employed during the school day, are used for special and remedial programs. Teacher aides to assist outside of school, after school, or during lunch periods may also be supported by Community Action Programs.

Continuing Education of Teachers

Teaching is an ever-changing field, and the good teacher is ever changing. Continuous training is especially important for the teaching of disadvantaged children. Such training also has helped recharge the dedication of teachers who became fatigued, discouraged, and, possibly, tempted to leave the profession.

Just as classroom pupils learn more by doing than by listening to lectures, so do teachers. In-service training is often more effective than the conventional classroom training in helping teachers to develop their skills. Training-by-doing can take many forms as shown by the following three examples.

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Sometimes a first-rate training program utilizes little formal instruction but provides plenty of time for teachers to take a detailed look at their own experiences, evaluate them, compare them against experiences of others, and invent still better methods. One large Midwestern city developed an experimental summer school for grades one to six. This program stressed language arts, social studies, and arithmetic in a setting of work projects and play. A formal hour of in-service training—demonstrations and discussions based on occasional lectures by a psychologist from a nearby university—was held every afternoon. Teachers stayed for two or three hours after the one o'clock closing of school for informal discussion, exchange of ideas, and invention of experimental tasks.

Teachers, supervised by a school social worker assigned as a parent coordinator, spent some after-school time in visiting homes. They also exchanged ideas on how to get the most out of these home visits.

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Every community has countless resources which, properly used, can help improve skills of teachers. A nearby college or university might provide lecturers or consultant specialists. These experts may be professors of education who can advise on innovations in teaching techniques; perhaps one is especially equipped on the problems of the educationally deprived child. But there are less obvious resources of expertise in any community—professional and working people in chemical, baking, banking, electronics,

paint, cement, steel, transportation, newspaper, and other industries, as well as police and fire stations, hospitals, and jails. People in these places can enhance a teacher's ability to explain the world of work, thus aiding him in development of special lesson units, study materials, and field trips.

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The same Midwestern school system cooperated with a large university in giving a one-week summer seminar to train teachers in working more effectively with parents. It served also as a good example of how teachers are sometimes taught best when they teach themselves.

Instead of lectures to the 50 teachers in the class, the seminar relied chiefly on small discussion groups (each of about 10 teachers) as well as a discussion leader and three or four parents of the poor. The teachers drove each morning to low-income neighborhoods to pick up parents who had agreed to participate; their young children also were brought to the campus to be entertained in playrooms. In addition to discussion, bibliographies were prepared for extra reading by the teacher-students. On the first day the 50 teachers and 20 parents, in groups of about a dozen, were asked to "brainstorm" all areas of possible mutual interest of parents and teachers. In "brainstorming" all suggestions are encouraged and negative comment is barred. Several subjects were listed on a blackboard: war, birth control, teen-agers. parent cooperation, jobs, husbands. After 10 minutes groups voted to select topics they most wanted to discuss. In addition to what they learned about the discussion topics, both teachers and parents learned a great deal about each other—the differences in their backgrounds and biases, their relative ability to communicate, and their common devotion to the healthy development of children.

The morning experience provided a fine basis for the afternoon topic: major principles in successful interviews between parents and teachers. The university instructor, instead of enunciating high-flown, abstract principles, asked the parents and teachers to list some guidelines. They produced such simple but basic ideas as "don't rush," "listen with interest," "be respectful." They also listed bad principles: "look impatient," "criticize and make value judgments," "not looking interested."

The class also did some role-playing—sometimes a parent played the teacher and a teacher, the parent. First they would role-play the wrong way to hold an interview, and then a good way. The class divided into smaller groups, did more role-playing, and conducted detailed discussions to evaluate the interviews.

One day teachers and parents visited an experimental summer school, similar to the one described above, to talk with parent coordinators. After a break for a lunch (enjoying food indigenous to the community could help to build a bond between teachers and neighborhood), they held an afternoon discussion of what they had seen, both good and bad, in the summer school and its parent coordination program. Next day the teachers discussed such basic topics as how a child learns, what helps him learn, and how parents can help. Then they role-played a teaching situation using rewards and punishments. The "pupil" had to memorize a poem and was rewarded as evidence of doing well—"My, you read well." "That's fine, you almost know it by heart." Poor memorization was punished—"No, that's wrong." "No, you left out a word." The class saw a clear illustration of how punishment and disapproval slows learning. In an afternoon session teachers discussed what they could do to help children respect their parents and what parents could do to help children respect their teachers and schools.

While this seminar required a week of full-time participation, it could easily be changed to a series of after-school sessions stretching over several months.

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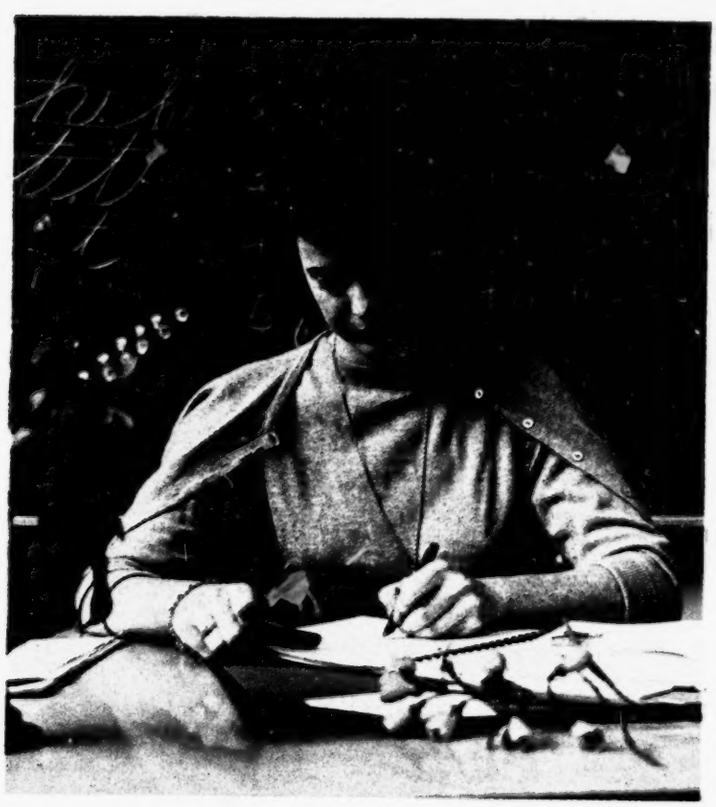
A good teacher-training program practices what it preaches. If it tries to train teachers not to lecture to pupils but to demonstrate, the program itself should be based not on lecture, but on demonstration.

When a discussion technique operates well in the teacher-training class, the group should inspect the technique closely and determine why it went well. What works for the teachers will probably work equally well in their regular class with pupils. If teachers found they did not need a prescribed syllabus from their professor, but were able to develop their own list of topics to discuss, the same might work in a class of pupils. For example, in a social science unit a teacher may ask students to list reasons why almost all great cities grow beside bodies of water and rivers.

After listing reasons for the growth of cities, the teacher might ask children to list problems that arise from city life. By thinking creatively about such problems, the students develop their own discussion outline and are motivated to dig into each point.

If a small discussion group in the teachers' seminar is especially fruitful, they might discuss how to use such groups in their regular classrooms. If teachers and parents have found themselves especially considerate of each other in allowing for differences of background, the teachers might then discuss background differences between deprived pupils and themselves as a start in being more understanding of the habits of their pupils.

In-service teacher training for special programs to better help disadvantaged children may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. In-service training may also be accomplished under the National Defense Education Act, Title XI, which provides specifically for retaining teachers of the educationally disadvantaged.



After-School Study Centers and Tutoring

A youngster from the out-of-the-mainstream world of poverty is perhaps less at odds with the study of reading, writing, and arithmetic than he is with the institution of school itself or with the teacher of middle-class background whose motivations he may not have learned to share. For this reason, perhaps more than any other, after-school study centers at which a youngster may work alone or with a tutor often provide a tremendous spurt toward his academic success.

The following are descriptions of three varieties of after-school study centers now in operation in one Midwestern city. Any community, large or small, might benefit from organizing a center based on one or a combination of these models.

1. One center, associated with a boys' club, is in a neighborhood of deep deprivation. The center, organized in an informal way, is situated in a windowless room on the street level of a high-rise apartment building. The club has hired two public school teachers to run the center, assisted by a group of volunteer students from a nearby university. They give help with homework and lead activities, ranging from picnics to cultural expeditions. About 60 elementary and high school students attend on Monday through Friday afternoons from 3:30 to 5:30, with or without appointments. Because of the informal atmosphere, the center probably does as much in providing children with stimulating and rewarding relationships with adults as it does in helping them improve their school work.

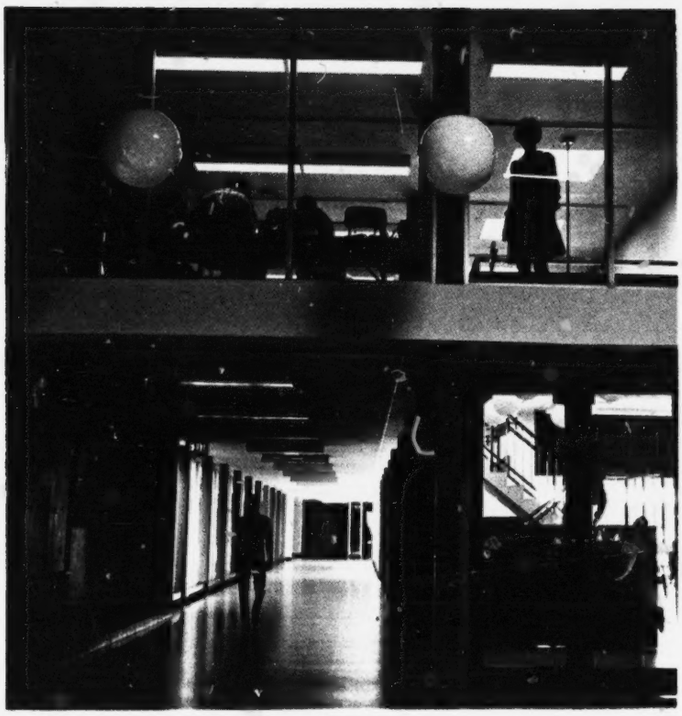
2. A distinguishing feature of a second center is that it was initiated by a public school whose proportion of students failing in reading had increased in two years from 2 percent to 20 percent. The center is run on Saturday mornings only by a minister's wife assisted by 30 volunteer tutors, mostly high school seniors. A library is stocked by the public library system, whose nearest branch is a mile away. The majority of the children are white. Unlike most centers which charge no fee, these children pay $1.50 a semester for workbooks and materials.

3. The third center is managed by a group of interested residents without help from any formal

organization. They obtained an empty store and donations of furnishings, books, magazines, and money. More than 150 disadvantaged children are registered. Children are given tutoring appointments in the evening but may come any time to use the library. This center will soon be open afternoons for homework help. There are 60 volunteers, mostly middle class, from the neighborhood as well as outside it. Volunteers ran the center for the first six weeks, but then a part-time paid coordinator (a woman who had been to college for one year) was employed.

Still other arrangements for after-school study centers have been found useful. A New York antipoverty group pays high school students $11 a week (which helps many stay in school) as "homework helpers," especially in reading, for children in the third to sixth grades. Another group in California pays junior high school students $1 an hour for tutoring younger children; tutoring there has become so popular that paid tutors are outnumbered by volunteer tutors.

Tutoring of school children by other school children deserves special interest. In Michigan and California pilot experiments were conducted in which sixth-grade pupils were assigned to tutor lower graders who showed signs of school difficulty. The lower graders, in almost all cases, showed a noticeable rise in involvement and achievement. Equally significant, however, was a definite beneficial change in the achievement and attitude of the tutors. Some of these tutors had been not only backward learners themselves, but rebellious "problem children." Many tutored effectively and showed remarkable improvement in their own learning, their attitude toward school, and their behavior and dress. In the Michigan experiment, conducted by a university in a school of the disadvantaged, sixth graders spent 45 minutes a day as "academic assistants" in the first, second, third, and fourth grades, helping younger pupils with reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic. Two afternoons a week—also for 45 minutes—the older children met in a seminar to discuss how "olders" can best help "youngers." They discussed what can be realistically expected of children of each age. They exchanged ideas on how to correct errors in a manner that was encouraging instead of discouraging. Through "role-playing," older children pretended they were "youngers," by way of testing how they would react to



certain kinds of praise or scolding, friendliness or threat. Their habitual disdain for the ways of younger children turned to sympathetic constructiveness.

A program of this kind may be supported by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It may also be supported under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

The Model School

A model school is sometimes the incentive for needed changes throughout a whole school system. Such a school unit usually includes both a high school and its feeder schools. They work best when the whole unit is administered independently from the rest of the school system. A model school can give teachers and administrators a chance to try out new ideas and techniques for the disadvantaged children.

Parts of such a program may be financed by a local Community Action Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity, or under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

The Community School

A community school combines many of the programs described in this book—plus more—and makes them part of a total community effort to attack educational disadvantages of children and their parents. Seven community schools are today at the heart of an anti-poverty action program in New Haven, Connecticut. The community school idea is also in successful operation at Flint, Michigan.

Winchester Elementary School in New Haven reaches out to serve every man, woman, and child in its neighborhood, closing its doors only when the neighborhood sleeps—from midnight to 8 a.m. The Winchester program began 17 years ago when the school's principal walked along the neighborhood's main street, taking note of its myriad saloons and pool halls, its clusters of idle youth. "I have my schoolchildren for only five hours a day," he is said to have brooded. "How can I compete with this other school—the street—and these other teachers—the slum dwellers—who have them for the rest of the time?"

The first step, the principal decided, was to make his school a home away from home. With money scraped up from a sympathetic mayor and a local foundation and with the help of volunteers, the school kept its doors open after 3 p.m., wooing the children with story-reading, sports, clubs—anything to hold them until 5:30 p.m., when working mothers came home. Meanwhile, the principal launched night classes in basic English and seminars on family problems.

He invited Negro professional men—doctors, lawyers, and others—to talk of their work and to present models of achievement with whom the pupils could identify.

Students from Yale University, located in New Haven, soon gravitated toward the school to tutor pupils in their homework. The Yale students escorted Winchester pupils to newspaper plants, factories, concerts, and ball games and took them to the library where together they explored exciting storybooks. For the first time these children got to know young adults, vigorous and athletic ones at that, who derived pleasure from books and working toward a goal.

One Yale student formed a group to coach youngsters in subjects that would qualify them for college-

preparatory schools. Six boys did so well they were accepted at Hotchkiss, Taft, and other exclusive prep schools and went on to study at Yale and Columbia.

The Winchester plan, now duplicated in six other New Haven schools, has attained broad acceptance in the community, as well as among school leaders. New Haven's community schools have helped show how many slum children can equip themselves for opportunity—and rich lives—when given imaginative support by educators.

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Even before New Haven began experimenting with the community school, the idea was pioneered in Flint, aided by funds from a private foundation. Today there are 47 community schools serving adults as well as children from morning to night. All new schools constructed in Flint contain multipurpose rooms for both large and small groups, expandable by opening accordion-type doors. Older buildings have been remodeled according to this design.

Tens of thousands of adults swarm into these buildings in evening hours for training in industrial skills, foreign languages, and subjects suitable for work or leisure, such as cake decorating and ham radio operation. One school has a class for hobbyists in gem cutting, which calls itself "The Rock Hounds." Children of these class members became interested in the same hobby and organized a group called "The Pebble Puppies." A hunter wanted to learn about canine blood lines; he interested 11 neighbors in the subject—an enrollment of 12 is required for a new class—and the course was scheduled in dog genetics. It was taught by a recognized expert who lived in the city. Many teachers are drawn from the vast human resources of the community, while some are already members of public school faculties. To broaden understanding of the community and its sources of livelihood, several schools have courses in basic economics taught by business and industrial executives.

Adult education in community schools has become so popular that it is publicized by a 24-page, tabloid-format newspaper, distributed widely like a shopping guide.

Thousands of youngsters from junior and senior high schools are enrolled in Teen Clubs. These clubs elect their own officers and deemphasize adult supervision, thus providing youngsters with leadership

and citizenship training. They offer fun—basketball, swimming, dancing, and hobbies—along with opportunities for community service.

Although physically separate, an important part of the community school idea is more than a hundred "home unit" kindergarten-through-third-grade primary schools located in converted ranch-style dwellings. These units guarantee that each young child goes to a school close to home. If a unit becomes unneeded, it may be reconverted to a residence and sold. Instruction in these "early-years" schools is based on a "primary-cycle" plan which permits a youngster to move continuously at his own pace through a series of reading levels, instead of fixing him in the traditional first, second, and third grades.

In each block a "captain" promotes the offerings of the community school and helps bring other local problems into the open. He listens to his neighbors on problems ranging from traffic control to marital difficulties and, assisted by community school personnel, refers the problems to appropriate community agencies.

Parts of a community school program may be enabled by imaginative use of funds from a local Community Action Program or under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Some Final Considerations

Relatively small school districts may do well to consider sharing efforts with neighboring school districts and community organizations. Similarly, adjacent school districts, townships, and counties with relatively small numbers of disadvantaged children may join to serve the needy over a wide area in a single, comprehensive program.

Every community has talented men and women who are eager to volunteer their services to help children. They can be of immense help to teachers both inside and outside the classroom. Their special skills often can compliment those of the teacher; their presence alone can make activities feasible which a teacher working alone could not handle.

Disadvantaged children attending private schools, who also are eligible for aid under new Federal legislation, should be included in the benefits of the school-

community effort. Many religious organizations of a community will eagerly share in the development and execution of school programs, the monetary costs of which their members also share.

Parents can and should play an important role in the development of programs for their children. Often they have understandings of needs and problems which professionals may lack. Similarly, they may provide valuable insight on the way in which children see programs and the reasons why they do not respond to them. Finally, listening to parents can help them gain a sense of their own worth and value to the community.

By law, Federally funded programs require evaluation. Although methods of evaluation should be part of a program's design, they should not become its master. Hopefully, in most cases, evaluations will be built upon objective data. In others, assessments by persons directly involved will necessarily be the source of evaluation. In any event, programs must meet the needs of children, not the needs of research specialists. An able research person finds imaginative ways to collect and analyze data as an integral part of the program design from inception to completion, yet he may do so without distortion of the program itself.

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Whether impoverished children live in city or country, their dissimilar roots have nourished similar problems. They have been deprived of experiences needed to make them effective, contributing mmbers of a prosperous society. The problem is not only theirs. It is the community's and the nation's.

The solution lies not alone with school or home, but in a total effort engaging every responsible element in the community. Some communities have already initiated extensive action programs to define and attack the symptoms and causes of mass human deprivation. In such programs priorities must be set and inventories of resources allocated. Schools are high among these resources.

Time, too, must be properly utilized. Urgent as the moment's needs may be, the long-range, more difficult, and costly goal must always be uppermost: to smash the chain of dependence and permit each young American to search for and to experience the benefits of freedom, abundance, and knowledge—"to the limit of his ability."

APPENDIX: SOURCES OF GOVERNMENT FUNDING

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965

General Program Improvement, Title I (P.L. 89-10). Grants are available for local educational agencies having high concentrations of children from low-income families to provide programs to meet the special needs of educationally deprived children; including those whose achievement is below that normally expected of children of their age and grade and children who are handicapped because of physical, mental, or emotional impairment. Children in private and parochial schools, as well as children who are not in school, may share in benefits of this Title through participation in projects designed by public educational agencies. Projects must be planned specifically to meet the special needs of educationally deprived children in eligible districts. Applications are submitted for approval to the state educational agency. Funds are allocated by a formula based on the number of children from low-income families. Funds may be used to hire additional staff, acquire equipment, provide special programs and services, and for other purposes designed to meet the overall objective of improving elementary and secondary education for educationally deprived children. *Additional information may be obtained from the Division of Program Operations, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Aid to Libraries, Title II (P.L. 89-10). Federal aid is available under this title for school library resources (including audiovisual materials), textbooks, and other printed and published instructional materials for the use of children and teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools. *Additional information may be obtained from your state education agency or Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Educational Centers, Title III (P.L. 89-10). Grants are made to local educational agencies or combination of LEA's to enable a community to provide educational services not presently available to its children, to raise the quality of educational services already offered, and to assist in the development of exemplary elementary and secondary school programs to serve as models for regular school programs. *Additional information may be obtained from your state education agency or the Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Research and Training, Title IV (P.L. 89-10). The Bureau of Research of the Office of Education seeks to improve education through research and related activities initiated outside the Office. With authorizations from Congress, the Bureau provides funds to support research projects and programs designed to expand knowledge about the educational process, to develop new and improved educational programs and techniques, to disseminate the results of these efforts to educators and the public, and to train researchers in the field of education. *Additional information may be obtained from the Bureau of Research, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

HIGHER EDUCATION ACT

Student Assistance, Title IV (H.R. 9567). Under this title undergraduate scholarships are provided, through institutions of higher education and state programs, to qualified high school graduates from low-income families. The use of work-study and loan programs is encouraged to combine with or supplement scholarship aid. *Additional information may be obtained from the Director, Division of Student Financial Aid, Bureau of Higher Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Manpower Training and Redevelopment Act (P.L. 87-415, as amended by P.L. 89-15). This Act offers vocational training and retraining to upgrade skills of unemployed and underemployed youth and adults who have insufficient education or who have been displaced by technological changes. Training is offered in areas in which there is reasonable expectation of employment. Special programs are available to youths 16 years and older who have been out of school for a year. School systems interested in knowing more about this resource should contact their state education agency. *Additional information may be obtained from the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Training provided by the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 (P.L. 87-27) has become Section 241 of P.L. 89-15, Manpower Act. This section of the Manpower Act provides occupational training and retraining for unemployed and underemployed persons in occupations specified by the Secretary of Labor as having employment opportunities in areas of persistent and/or chronic unemployment and designated for economic redevelopment by the Secretary of Commerce. *Additional information may be obtained from the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Vocational Education Act (P.L. 88-210). Funds are available for state vocational education programs for persons in high school, for persons who have completed or left high school, for persons who are unemployed or underemployed, and for persons who have academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in regular vocational education programs. Residential vocational schools, work-study programs, teacher-training, and research programs are included in the provisions of this Act. School systems interested in knowing more about this resource should contact their state education agency. *Additional information may be obtained from the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Aid to technical and vocational education. (This was formerly NDEA, Title VIII, P.L. 85-864, as amended by P.L. 88-210.) Grants are available to states for the development of area vocational education programs in scientific or technological fields. These programs are designed to train persons for employment as highly skilled technicians in recognized occupations requiring scientific knowledge in fields necessary for the national defense. Provision can be made for retraining and refresher courses for adults in such fields as electronics and industrial chemistry. School systems interested in knowing more about this resource should contact their state education agency. *Additional information may be obtained from the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

CIVIL RIGHTS INSTITUTES

Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title IV (P.L. 88-352). Title IV provides funds to colleges and universities to conduct institutes for school personnel, grants to the school boards for in-service training and the employment of advisory specialists, and technical assistance, including consultants, to enable schools to deal more effectively with educational problems caused by desegregation. *Further information may be obtained from the Equal Educational Opportunity Program, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT

Loans to Students in Institutions of Higher Learning, Title II (P.L. 85-864, as amended by P.L. 88-665). Undergraduate and graduate students at American colleges and universities may obtain loans under this Title to pursue their higher education. Students receiving loans who become full-time teachers in public or

other nonprofit elementary or secondary schools or institutions of higher education may have up to 50 percent of their loans canceled. *Additional information may be obtained from the Director, Division of Student Financial Aid, Bureau of Higher Education Programs, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Grants to Strengthen Subject Areas, Title III (P.L. 85-864, as amended by P.L. 88-665). Matching grants to states are available for the purpose of strengthening education in elementary and secondary schools in the critical subjects of science, mathematics, history, civics, geography, modern foreign language, English, and reading. This is accomplished through Federal grants and loans for the acquisition of laboratory and other special equipment and through Federal grants for state programs of supervisory and related services in those subjects. School systems interested in knowing more about this resource should contact their state education agency. *Additional information may be obtained from the Divison of Program Operations, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Guidance, Counseling, and Testing. Title V (P.L. 85-864, as amended by P.L. 88-665). State education agencies may receive matching grants under this Title to establish and maintain elementary and secondary school programs of testing, guidance, and counseling. These programs are designed for the early identification of students with outstanding aptitude. School systems interested in knowing more about this resource should contact their state education agency. *Additional information may be obtained from Division of Program Operations, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

Institutes for Advanced Study, Title XI (P.L. 88-665). Funds are available to institutions of higher education to conduct institutes for advanced study in order to improve the qualifications of individuals engaged in the teaching of disadvantaged youth. Short-term or regular session institutes may be held; usually summer programs predominate. The law defines such youth as those who are "culturally, economically, socially, and educationally handicapped." An institute may focus on teachers whose students are rural, urban, migrant, Indian, non-English speaking, and so forth. *Additional information may be obtained from the Division of Educational Personnel Training, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

HANDICAPPED

Captioned Films for the Deaf (P.L. 85-505, as amended by P.L. 87-715). Under this Act a service of films is available to provide cultural and educational experiences and to promote educational advancement for the deaf. The Act also supports research in the use and production of these films and for training persons in this area. *Additional information may be obtained from Director, Captioned Films for the Deaf Branch, Division of Research Training and Dissemination, Bureau of Research, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.*

National Technical Institute for the Deaf (P.L. 89-36). The National Technical Institute for the Deaf will provide a residential vocational school for post-secondary training of deaf youth for employment in high-skill jobs. *Additional information may be obtained from Phillip Des Marias, Office of the Secretary, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20201.*

NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION

National Science Foundation Act of 1950 (P.L. 81-507). This Act supports programs aimed at improving scientific education through special institutes for teachers, curriculum planning, and projects to modernize materials of instruction. Secondary school and college students of high ability can participate in projects to secure added scientific experience. *Additional information may be obtained from the National Science Foundation, Washington, D.C. 20550.*

COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS

These programs provide financial support for local antipoverty campaigns in urban and rural areas, on Indian reservations, and among migrant workers. Community action assistance to education is limited to remedial and other noncurricular activities. Local antipoverty projects may include: preschool programs (such as Head Start), remedial reading, literacy instruction, in-service training on working with low-income children, employment counseling, homemaker services, educational supportive services, vocational rehabilitation, and health services.

Federal assistance depends on the community's determination to (a) mobilize its own public and private resources, (b) develop programs of sufficient scope and size that promise to eliminate causes of poverty, (c) involve residents of the areas affected and representatives of the groups assisted in developing and operating antipoverty attacks, and (d) administer and coordinate community action programs through public or private nonprofit agencies, or a combination of these. At present, it appears that the Federal government will pay up to 90 percent of cost of local programs until August 20, 1967; after that assistance is on a 50-50 matching basis. Preferably, grants are made to broadly based, multipurpose local community action agencies. In some instances they may be made to single purpose organizations (such as school districts), where the project is a first building block in a contemplated overall program. Grants may be made to church-related organizations, if certain restrictive conditions are met. *For information, contact the regional offices of the Office of Economic Opportunity:*

N.Y., Maine, N.H., Conn., R.I., Vt., Mass., N.J.	40 E. 41st Street New York, N.Y. 10017
W. Va., Va., Ky., Md., Pa., Del., N.C.	1156 15th Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20506
Fla., Miss., Ala., Tenn., Ga., S.C.	101 Marietta Street Atlanta, Ga. 30303
Minn., Wis., Ill., Mich., Ind., Ohio	623 S. Wabash Avenue Chicago, Ill. 60605
La., Ark., Okla., N. Mex., Tex.	314 W. 11th Street Austin, Tex. 78701
Mo., Kans., Nebr., Wyo., Idaho, Colo., N. Dak., S. Dak., Mont., Utah, Iowa	Pershing Building 215 W. Pershing Road Kansas City, Mo. 64104
Calif., Oreg., Wash., Nev., Ariz., Hawaii, Alaska	100 McAllister Street San Francisco, Calif. 94102

THE NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS

The Neighborhood Youth Corps provides full- or part-time work experience and training for youths, 16 through 21, enabling them to stay in school, return to school, or increase their employability. This program may be administered by an agency of state or local government (such as school districts) or nonprofit organizations. The Corps places youngsters in simple or beginning jobs in hospitals, settlement houses, schools, libraries, courts, parks, playgrounds, and so forth. Corps workers must not displace other regular employees or impair existing contracts for services. At present, it appears that the Federal government will pay up to 90 percent of local program cost until August 20, 1967; after that, assistance is on a 50-50 matching basis. *For information, contact the Neighborhood Youth Corps, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20506, or any of its seven regional offices.*

THE JOB CORPS

The Job Corps provides residential centers for young men and women, 16 through 21, in a coordinated program of basic education, skill training, and constructive work experience. It is a voluntary program designed for youth lacking schooling and job skills. Enrollees receive pay and living allowance while in training.

Smaller centers will be located on public lands; larger ones will generally be on unused facilities near metropolitan communities. *For information, contact your regional office of the Office of Economic Opportunity.*

VISTA

Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA) provides an opportunity for those 18 and over to join the War on Poverty. Enrollees work with migrant laborers; on Indian reservations; in urban and rural community action programs; in slum areas, hospitals, and schools; and in institutions for the mentally ill and retarded. Serving for a one-year period, volunteers receive a living allowance and $50 a month. *Organizations wishing the help of these volunteers should contact VISTA, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C. 20506.*

MIGRANTS

OEO Assistance. OEO assistance for migrant agricultural workers and their families provides grants, loans, and loan guarantees to assist state and local agencies, private nonprofit institutions, and cooperatives in setting up programs to meet special needs in housing, sanitation, education, and day care of children. *Contact your regional office of the Office of Economic Opportunity.*

Health Services. Grants are available to state and other agencies to pay part of the cost of (a) training personnel, establishing and operating family clinics, without residence requirements, for domestic migrant workers and their families and (b) special health projects for these groups. *Contact: Migrant Health Section, Public Health Service, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20201.*

COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

Federal, state, and county governments share in financing, planning, and conducting out-of-school educational programs to serve local needs. The Extension Service is the educational arm of the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the off-campus branch of the land-grant colleges and universities. Extension specialists are trained in agriculture, home economics, youth work, and related fields. They help local citizens organize regional programs to develop the resources of the total community. *Contact: Your county extension agent.*

FOOD DISTRIBUTION

Special Milk Program. This program encourages consumption of fluid milk in public and private nonprofit schools, nursery schools, and so forth. State education agencies generally administer the program under agreements with the Department of Agriculture. The Food Distribution Division of the Department makes the payments directly to nonprofit private schools and child-care institutions in the states in which the program is not administered by the state agency. *Contact: Your state education agency or Food Distribution Division, Agricultural Marketing Service, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.*

School Lunch Program. Grants are made to state education agencies for distribution to both public and nonprofit private schools participating in the lunch program. Participating schools must agree to make lunches available free or at a reduced cost for needy children. *Contact: Your state education agency or Food Distribution Division, Agricultural Marketing Service, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.*

Commodity Distribution Program. To encourage consumption of agricultural products, commodities are donated to public and private agencies for distribution to low-income groups. Agreements are made between the Secretary of Agriculture and state agencies, which act as distributing agents. The Federal government pays costs to the point of delivery to the state-designated agency. The state, or local government, determines which institutions, families, or individuals are eligible, provides local storage and transportation, and handles local distribution. *Contact: Your state education agency or Food Distribution Division, Agricultural Marketing Service, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.*

Acknowledgement is made to *Redbook Magazine* for the use of some anecdotal material in the opening chapter.

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Additional copies of this booklet may be obtained by writing to Community Action Program, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C. 20506, or the Publications Distribution Unit, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.

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